The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 11, 1915.

Summary of the News

The text of the note to Great Britain regarding interference with neutral commerce was published in Monday's papers. The note, a lengthy document of some 7,000 words, exclusive of various papers incorporated in it, takes up the entire question of the British blockade as operated under the Order in Council, disputing its legality and its effectiveness. Comment on the matter will be found in our editorial columns. Public opinion, as reflected in editorials in the daily press, seems to approve the main contentions of the note, but recognizes the probability that full settlement of the differences between the Governments of the United States and of Great Britain will be postponed until after the war shall be over, when they may conveniently be referred to a court of arbitration.

The sensation of the week in the war was the report, circulated in London on November 5, that Lord Kitchener had resigned his office as Secretary of State for War. The report received prompt and forcible official denial, and the London *Globe,* which, despite the denial, reiterated the statement that Lord Kitchener's resignation had been offered, was suppressed by the police. Lord Kitchener, it was announced on Saturday, has gone to the eastern theatre of war. For the present, at any rate, it is stated that he will retain his office of Secretary for War, the duties of it being administered during his absence by Mr. Asquith and Mr. Lloyd George.

The result of a Cabinet crisis in Greece has been to leave the situation virtually unchanged. Following a stormy debate in the Chamber that lasted through the night of November 3 until five o'clock the following morning M. Venizelos refused longer to support the Government of M. Zaimis. On a vote of confidence the Ministry was defeated by 147 to 114. In the course of the debate M. Venizelos severely criticised the King on account of his unconstitutional attitude. The situation was patched up on Sunday, when M. Skouloudis accepted the Premiership, retaining in his Cabinet all the members of the Ministry of M. Zaimis except the ex-Premier himself. M. Skouloudis, going a step further than his predecessor, has declared his intention of maintaining an attitude of "very benevolent neutrality" towards the Allied Powers. His Government, however, is still at the mercy of M. Venizelos and the situation remains as critical as ever.

The retreat of the Servian army has continued. Nish, the temporary capital, was occupied by Bulgar forces on Saturday of last week, and the Austro-Germans, having crossed the western Morava River, have occupied Krusevac. Nevertheless, the primary object of the invaders will not have been attained until they have obtained control of the railway from Belgrade to Nish and Sofia and uninterrupted passage is established for munitions to the Bulgars and Turks. Movements of the Allied troops are hidden in an almost complete censorship, but there have been reports from Athens that larger numbers than were thought to be near the scene of operations have been landed at Salonica. The campaign of the Allies in the Balkans will have been assisted by the Russian offensive. Determined attacks have been reported at many points, and substantial successes in Galicia and near Dvinsk.

Submarines of the Teutonic allies have displayed great activity in the Mediterranean during the past week. Since November 4, so far as can be ascertained from available reports, seven ships of various nationalities have been sunk in this sea. The last was the Italian liner Ancona, just out from Naples, westward bound, with some 500 persons on board, which was sunk on Tuesday. Full reports are not available as we write. It cannot, for instance, be definitely ascertained as yet whether the liner resisted capture, but the report that nearly half of the total complement of passengers and crew was lost would seem to furnish a strong presumption that the liner was torpedoed without warning. Dispatches state that the Ancona was sunk by a "large submarine flying the Austrian colors." If this is correct, it will be immediately apparent that the legal position of Germany in the matter is as unassailable as was her legal position in the case of Miss Cavell. Germany has broken no pledge. It is her ally that has sunk an unarmed, passenger-carrying liner, and we know from the matter of the Armenian atrocities that Germany can assume no responsibility for the conduct of her allies.

Rumors that Germany has been throwing out tentative feelers for peace have been prevalent during the past ten days, encouraged principally by Prince von Bülow's visit to Switzerland. Prince von Bülow and the Sayville wireless have united in vigorous denial which is doubtless technically correct. Some color, however, is lent to the rumors by the fact, becoming increasingly apparent, that the British blockade is causing serious inconvenience in Germany. Extracts from a remarkable article in *Vorwärts,* calling on the German Government to declare its ultimate intentions in regard to the war, were cabled to the New York *Times* of November 6; in the same paper we read a dispatch of the Associated Press concerning new regulation of prices for hogs and pork in Berlin; on the following day were cabled extracts from another article in *Vorwärts* attacking the Government for incompetence in the measures taken for the regulation of the food supply and of prices.

The Federal grand jury on Monday found indictments against the six Germans who are alleged to have conspired to destroy at sea vessels carrying munitions to the Allies. The names of the six men are: "Lieutenant" Robert Fay, Max Breitung, Walter Scholz, Paul Daeche, Dr. Herbert Kienzle, and Engelbert Bronkhorst. A seventh man is under arrest.

The State Department announced on November 3 that Brand Whitlock, American Minister to Belgium, had received leave of absence for two months and would at once return to the United States. Secretary Lansing particularly emphasized the fact that Mr. Whitlock's leave of absence was due solely to reasons of health and had no connection with the case of Miss Cavell.

In a speech at a dinner of the Manhattan Club on November 4 President Wilson announced his programme of national defence. Comment on the President's speech will be found in our editorial columns. Mr. Bryan lost no time in reaffirming his views on the question. His formal statement replying to the President was published on Saturday. On the same day Secretary Garrison made public an official outline of his plans for the army.

The new Seaman's Act went into effect at midnight on November 3.

Estimated returns of the elections held on November 2, which we summarized editorially last week, were published in the daily papers of November 4.

The verdict of the court-martial which has tried Rear-Admiral William M. Little, jr., retired, on charges of carelessness and neglect of duty in "passing" the storage batteries on the submarine K-2, was reached on November 6. The verdict has not, as we write, been published, but has been referred to Secretary Daniels.

From Mexico there is little to record since the defeat of Villa at Agua Prieta. Gen. Carranza is apparently making preparations to press the military campaigns against Villa in Sonora and Zapata in Morelos. Villa, it is thought, is likely to be driven into a corner at Naco by the forces of Gen. Obregon.

M. Briand's new Ministry, on facing the Chamber of Deputies on November 3, received an impressive vote of confidence, the figures being 515 to 1. In his speech the Premier defined his policy as one that looked solely to the vigorous and efficient prosecution of the war to a successful issue.

Announcement was made last week by Premier Asquith that another vote of credit would be introduced in the House of Commons this week. The amount was not stated, but it is supposed that it will be for £250,000,000. In that case the total of British credits since the war began will be $7,550,000,000.

Celebrations have commenced in connection with the coronation of Emperor Yoshihito of Japan at Kioto on November 16.

Some anxiety was caused by dispatches from Peking of November 4 stating that the Secretary of the Japanese Legation had called at the Foreign Office and asked the meaning of China's reply to the recent Japanese note regarding the proposed change of China to a monarchical form of government. Dispatches from Kioto on Tuesday, however, stated that Japan had assured the Powers that she has no intention of coercing China.

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The Week

Whatever else the British Government may have to say in reply to the contentions of our note on the rights of neutral shipping, it is to be hoped that it will place as little emphasis as possible on the plea which, in the English newspapers, seems to receive the greatest prominence of all. That England is "fighting for her life" is no better justification for violations of international law than is the like plea in Germany's case, which has been the tap-root of the monstrous deeds that have brought upon her overwhelming odium. There is a vast difference, of course, between a stretching of the accredited usages of war in matters which are essentially questions of degree, and a ruthless disregard of them in matters which admit of no qualification and no compromise; but it is none the less true that any resort on the part of England to the excuse that this war is peculiarly a war of self-preservation must infallibly weaken her moral position both absolutely and in relation to Germany. What this country stands for in the controversy over blockade and seizure is the rights of neutrals, now and hereafter, as against the limitless claims of "military necessity"; and it is for England to reconcile her position, as best she can, with a reasonable view of those rights.

Secretary Lansing is said to have used pretty sharp language in his dispatch to Ambassador Page, requesting him to demand an explanation from the British Government of the recent seizure of American ships. They were taken before a prize court at Halifax, not because they were alleged to have a contraband cargo, but solely on the question of their having a valid American registry. Transfers from one flag to another in war time raise several difficult points in international law. Some of them the Declaration of London sought to clear up, but that Declaration was not ratified and is not binding. Some parts of it the British Government announced that it would abide by, but only last month served notice that it would no longer agree to take the flag as proof of ownership. It is, therefore, this question that is to be laid before the Halifax prize court. It is purely a matter of interpreting international law, in the light of all the facts, and to this our State Department has no reason to object. Appeal will lie, if the decision is adverse to the American claim; and Sir Edward Grey lately conceded that the decision of British prize courts would not necessarily be binding upon the United States. Accordingly, it is to be supposed that what has vexed Secretary Lansing is not the fact that the British have chosen to press this litigation, but the manner of their doing it. This certainly appears to have been both ill-timed and offensive. Already our Government has had an apology for the hauling down of the American flag on the Hocking. It may be that the captain of the English cruiser erred from excess of zeal, or lack of any Germans to fight. In any case, the Department of State will properly stand up for American rights.

On the specific question of England's delay in coming to the aid of Servia, as charged by Sir Edward Carson, Mr. Asquith's statement asserted that the Allied forces acted as promptly as could be; but the impression is strong that the Allied diplomacy with respect to Greece was by no means alert. On September 21, according to Mr. Asquith, Premier Venizelos asked for 150,000 Allied troops to help Greece fulfil her treaty obligations to Servia. Greece at the same time mobilized, and this apparently gave breathing time for the bringing up of Allied forces. But while Venizelos was strong enough to mobilize the army, he could not carry the country into war, "and not until October 6 did he find himself able to agree to the formal landing of British and French troops under formal protest." But had the Allied diplomats sufficient reason for thinking that Venizelos could swing Greece without question? Did not the Parliamentary elections which brought back Venizelos to power reveal a very sizable opposition, which, reinforced by the royal authority, might be enough to frustrate Venizelos a second time within six months?

The make-up of the new Greek Cabinet shows the monarch adopting the prudent course of holding fast to his own will while maintaining constitutional forms. There is nominally a new Premier; therefore the will of the Parliamentary majority has been formally recognized. But it is to all purposes as anti-Venizelos a Cabinet as its predecessor. The Minister of War is the same as in the Zaimis Ministry, the very man who precipitated the fight with the Venizelos majority. The Minister of the Interior is Gounaris, who was Premier after the first fall of Venizelos early this year, and the man whom Venizelos has accused of having entered into secret relations with Bulgaria which enabled the latter to attack Servia without fear of Greek interference. If it comes to extremes, and King Constantine has shown that he is prepared to go far, there is no reason why new Cabinets could not go on being organized until every anti-Venizelos man in Parliament has had a chance to be Premier. Such gain as Venizelos has scored consists in the fact that the Allies have been assured that there will be no sudden attack upon them from behind. As a matter of fact, such a move is virtually impossible, but public opinion in Allied countries needed some such reassurance. The new Premier has gone so far as to change his policy from benevolent neutrality to "very benevolent" neutrality.

Political and social upheavals in the belligerent nations, after the war, have been freely predicted. Something of that sort may easily occur. One thing seems certain, that the higher cost of living, and the increased taxes sure to follow for a long time, will lead to a resolute demand by the working classes that the increased wages which they have been getting in war-time be continued, or even be made larger still. We in this country shall doubtless face that, as well as Germany and England. Already it is a sense of the rôle which the laboring men are going to play which lends importance to what their spokesmen are saying now. In the German press, for example, official and semi-official newspapers do not count for so much, in showing what the masses are thinking, as the chief organ of the Social-Democratic party, the *Vorwärts*. From it we had last Saturday a cabled extract of much significance. It did not question the fact that Germany would fight on to the bitter end, but expressed great impatience with the Government—as also with the Governments of the Allies—for not letting the people know for what precisely they were fighting. It called for an explicit statement of the objects of the war, from which alone, it argued, a clear idea could be got of the way to secure peace. But in asking that mere "rhetoric" and patriotic flourishes be abandoned, *Vorwärts* forgets that the war began with that sort of thing. The Berlin military authorities had nothing at the beginning but vague talk about *Einkreisung* and a "place in the sun," and so on, all rhetorical. If from the first they had been actuated by a clear sense of realities, the war never would have been started. And we fear that the time has not yet come for them to abandon phrases.

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Ever since Mr. Bryan left the Cabinet last June, it has been believed that it was only a question of time when he would openly break with the President. He has now done so; and the issue which he has chosen does more credit to his consistency than to his political sagacity. For no one can be better aware than Mr. Bryan that, on the general question, he can get but a corporal's guard in Congress to go with him and against the President. The ground has been mined beneath him in advance. We have seen good Bryan men like Senator Kern, of Indiana, going to the White House and coming away converted to Mr. Wilson's plans. There has been shrewd politics in the affair from the beginning; and the ex-Secretary ought to understand by this time that the ex-professor is a very skilful politician. Whether the President takes any public notice of Mr. Bryan's attack or not, it is certain that he has foreseen it and has not omitted "preparedness" against it. If it comes to a definite fight between the two, there can hardly be doubt which one will win. Indeed, there are some who see in the President's speech a deliberate attempt to force Bryan into the open and to complete his political discomfiture.

The collection printed by the New York *Sun* of German-American views on the part played by the German-American vote in the recent election makes interesting reading. The piece that has the pleasantest sound to our ears is this, from the Cleveland *Anzeiger:* "The German-American vote cut no figure in Tuesday's election, as far as Ohio is concerned." In contrast with this is the view of the New York *Staats-Zeitung*, which, speaking of the results in the country generally, says: "This has been the first opportunity offered the 'hyphenated Americans' to express their opinion of the President's course at the ballot box, and they did not hesitate to make the proper use of it." But for cleverness commend us to the interpretation, which comes from Baltimore, of the result in Maryland, where the Democratic candidate for Governor was elected. It may seem difficult to wring from this a proof of the power of the German-American vote, when we consider that "the alleged leading Democratic organ tried to make the foreign policy of President Wilson an issue in the campaign." But in fact it is very easy; as easy as—well, as anything you please:

> In Baltimore the Americans of German origin affiliated with the Democratic party and saved the day for Emerson C. Harrington, the Democratic candidate for Governor. . . . They looked upon the attempt to introduce national questions into the campaign as the height of folly. They resented the attempt. Their natural independence of thought enables the Americans of German origin to divorce national from State questions and State questions from municipal questions.

Heads I win, tails you lose. If a Democrat is defeated, it is because the German-Americans resent Wilson's foreign policy; if he is elected, it is because they resent the attempt to make that policy an issue.

In his essay on political lying, Swift remarks that a short memory is essential to the interpretation of political events, or the interpreter will find himself repeatedly "swearing to both sides of a contradiction." In Massachusetts the anunal elections require an abnormal brevity of recollection. The Republicans are pointing to McCall's vote of 235,918, with its marked increase over the 198,600 votes he received in 1914, as evidence of the sweeping nature of the Republican triumph. But they forget entirely to look at the figures of Gov. Walsh's increase. In 1913 he received over 183,000 votes; in 1914, over 210,000; and this year, though defeated, he polled over 229,000. An extraordinarily large vote was brought out on all sides this year in Massachusetts, and into the result it is easy to read too much by simply looking at one side. As it is, it could be contended with force that the Democrats received a share of the returned Progressive vote. Similarly, examination of the facts makes it impossible for the Republicans to speak of the election as a high-tariff victory. Salem, with its cotton mills, was a Walsh city; so was Gloucester; so were Chicopee, Holyoke, Lynn, Brockton, Woburn, Lowell, and Fitchburg. Eleven of fourteen of the larger manufacturing cities were carried by Walsh. It was obviously an election with an unusual number of cross-currents.

Senator William Alden Smith's comment upon his Presidential boom contains a broad hint for other Favorite Sons. His endorsement by Michigan, mere compliment though he calls it, followed a vigorous campaign which had all the appearance of a determination to make that State the mother of a President. The moral should be plain to Republicans who expect to have the endorsement of their States without making such a fight for it, but, as if to leave them no excuse for the disappointment that he foresees for them at the Convention, Mr. Smith quietly remarks to a reporter that in his opinion "our candidate has not yet developed." This will be momentarily saddening to Senator Sherman of Illinois, for instance, who has given no sign that he regards himself as a mere temporary embodiment of the sentiment of a State that has given one or two great Presidents to the country and is now ready with another. Nevertheless, the remark of the Michigan Senator shows a revival of that ancient get-together spirit which has—almost—always made his party dangerous to its opponent. His acumen is further displayed in his naming of a man whom he would regard as an eminently suitable candidate. Reversing the procedure of the Athenian generals who voted each for himself as first choice, but for Themistocles as second, Senator Smith and most of his rivals give the impression of taking their candidate seriously only if there is no possibility of lassoing one C——— E——— H———.

For a seemingly complicated method of balloting, Cleveland's election machinery seems to have worked to the satisfaction of the city. By the new charter the nominations for city office are to be by petition only, the ballot is non-partisan, and each voter is to indicate a first, second, and third choice. A mere plurality will not decide the contest; and in case no candidate receives a majority of the first-choice vote, the second-choice and, if necessary, the third-choice ballots are added in to determine the election. With five candidates in the field this year, the non-partisan requirement was in effect ignored, it being understood that the bulk of the Democratic vote would go for Witt, the Republican for Davis and Norton. The fact that the Republican voters very largely voted first choice for Davis, second for Norton, gave the former a first-choice plurality, and a count of second and third choices gave him the office. The intent of the preferential ballot is to strengthen non-partisan and reform movements by making it harder for special interests to concentrate on a single candidate, while many votes are divided among better nominees. It would seem to be likely to work as well as Wisconsin's plan for cumulative voting in the Senatorial primaries.

"The dear old city of Newark," in ex-Gov. Franklin Murphy's words, thinks itself entitled to a birthday party next spring, when it is 250 years old; and last week it voted bonds to erect a $1,500,000 memorial building. This is to be used for the celebration, and is then to stand as an auditorium-hall for exhibitions, conventions, and musical festivals. But of broader significance is the

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plan of John C. Dana, Newark's librarian, for an exhibit of the textile industries of New Jersey next February and March. It will follow the lines of the exhibition last year of clay products, which was of State-wide scope and value, and which attracted national attention; but New Jersey's 3,000 textile manufacturers are expected to make it much larger. Mr. Dana plans to continue annually these industrial displays, which shall be not only commercial, but scientific and artistic in character. Thus he hopes to show "how inexpensively museums, localities, or groups of manufacturers can arrange a dignified and attractive exhibition which shall give rational and helpful publicity to the manufactures," and at the same time educate the public. These efforts to exhibit the products of a whole State in a single field seem to be without precedent, and in view of the expected decay of our large expositions, there would seem to be a place for them. In time we might progress to the unpretentious but effective exhibitions of related industries and arts which are so common abroad.

Not fear, but bewilderment, must be the feeling of intelligent South Americans towards us. Take the incident of the statue of Bolivar. Thirty years ago, Venezuela, thinking that a memorial of Bolivar in the principal city of this country would be an appropriate recognition of that hero's relation to the United States, where he had visited and whence he had derived inspiration for his fight for liberty in his own land, decided to present New York with a statue of him. The Venezuelans in charge of the matter had a statue made and sent to us. Imagine their surprise and embarrassment when we condemned the object as unsightly! Perhaps they had not succeeded in imitating as they had hoped the masterpieces that adorn Statuary Hall at Washington and other places, but they might have been pardoned for falling a bit short of our ideals. Ultimately, however, horse and rider went to the scrap-heap. Venezuela, however, is to give us another Bolivar—but she will have the statue designed by an American. That the American is Gutzon Borglum, who makes no pretence of admiring Statuary Hall, is the neatest part of the manœuvre.

The annual reports issued by the Bureau of Health for the Philippine Islands furnish statistical information with remarkable detail. The tabular statements are such as to convey at a glance a greater amount of specific knowledge—relating to causes of death, age at death, death-rates in specified classes of the population, frequency of various diseases, etc—than is usually accessible in so convenient shape in similar reports in our home States. A curious instance of special classification is the table of births in Manila, classed "according to number of children borne by mother." In the report just come to hand, the table includes entries up to the twenty-second child, and we have noticed about the same limit in previous years. Only one infant was born in the year who had thus been preceded by twenty-one fellow-children of the same mother; but of twentieth and nineteenth children there were two each, of sixteenth children ten, and of fourteenth children no less than twenty-three. This, in a population only one-twentieth that of New York city, is doing pretty well from Col. Roosevelt's standpoint.

That the efforts of the Bureau are by no means confined to statistics, however, is apparent from a glance at the other contents. The spirit of a modern department of health is evidenced in the great variety of activities which the Bureau has been carrying on. Soil pollution, water supply, sanitary markets, mosquito destruction—in these and other directions the Bureau has been going good work. In the present report, the subject to which greatest prominence is given is that of infant mortality. A vigorous summary of conclusions concerning this, prepared by a committee of physicians appointed under authority of a law enacted by the Philippine Legislature, is given in the Bureau's report. That "less than one-third of the children conceived live to be one year of age" the committee declares to be "a criticism of our Government, a shame to our Christianity, and a sociologic crime." Such a rate is certainly appalling, and justifies the strong language that is used throughout the document. Practical recommendations are made the adoption of which would mean a speedy reduction of the infantile death-rate to a far less terrible figure; and it is declared that the cry of insufficient funds is utterly inadmissible in the face of such a need and of the demonstrated feasibility of improvement. "An additional 1-centavo stamp placed upon every letter mailed in the Philippines would furnish money enough to save the lives of 25,000 babies a year."

When it is remembered that leprosy hospitals were known in Europe in the time of William the Conqueror, and that the specific microbe of the disease was discovered nearly fifty years ago, it must appear remarkable that progress in discovering a cure has been so slow. An achievement of the United States Medical Service, perhaps comparable with the discovery of the means of stamping out yellow fever, appears in the report of lepers cured by Dr. Victor G. Heiser and his assistants in the Philippines. Dr. Heiser's treatment consists in the hypodermic injection of chaulmoogra oil in special preparations. It was begun in 1911; in the autumn of 1913 were reported four cures; and in 1914, out of twelve cases under treatment, half were reported as showing "apparent recovery" and one-third marked improvement. Recent advices from Manila tell of twenty-three cured patients discharged from the leper hospitals. Meanwhile, the treatment has been adopted in foreign countries, and with results that thus far are promising. It would be wrong to place too much confidence in the method; it may be remembered that the X-ray was thought for a time to have effected cures, but that they proved only temporary. But the International Health Commission of the Rockefeller Foundation announces that it is already circulating details of this treatment.

Unlike Topsy, Canada is not to be contented with simply having "growed." A commission has been appointed by the Government to consider all questions of agriculture, industry, transportation, marketing, and immigration connected with national expansion—an evidence of Canada's concern, even in war-time, for her domestic future. Whether the commission is not facing too unwieldy and grandiose a task may be asked; but it is equipped with specific instructions from Premier Borden, and it includes, besides the Senate leader and other statesmen, representatives of labor, the trades, farming, and the railways. It is also to be remembered that Canada, with her enterprises in railway construction, in the subsidizing of ships, and in direct assistance to Western farmers, has always given a large degree of central direction to the Dominion's growth. After the war there will be pressing questions connected with the return of the Canadian contingents, with immigration from Europe, and with the continuation of the policy of borrowing from abroad. Already the completion of the two new transcontinental lines has inspired proposals for the attraction of immigrants, and the opening of the Panama Canal is quickening the West.

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THE NOTE TO ENGLAND.

There have long been two conflicting theories of the rights of neutrals. One is that they are merely a gracious—or grudging—concession by belligerents. Originally, of course, the nation at war did whatever it pleased, or had the power to do. Neither non-combatants nor neutrals could appeal against the supremacy of the sword. But little by little, during the course of hundreds of years, a body of custom, gradually taking the form of what we call international law, became recognized. It put certain limits upon belligerents. It accorded to neutrals certain rights. But even so a dispute has remained as regards the underlying theory. Belligerents often maintain, in effect, that they are acting simply out of magnanimity, or a neighborly spirit, when they consult the desires, or demands, of neutrals. The latter, on the contrary, base their claims on a positive legal basis, independent of the will, or whim, of a country at war. The difference is plain. It is very like the difference between a benevolent tyranny and a guaranteed bill of rights.

As a matter of fact, in all wars belligerents seek to exalt their powers, and to win every advantage they can at the expense of neutrals, while the latter protest or threaten. During our Civil War, the United States carried belligerent rights with as high a hand as we could. In the matter of the Trent, we went too far, and had to recede. But in the blockade, and in the cases arising out of it, we successfully maintained new positions, despite British remonstrances. In the war between England and the Boers, it was our turn to protest. When Russia and Japan were fighting, Great Britain objected strongly to certain acts and procedures of the Russian Government. The whole process looks sometimes like an eternal see-saw. But there is more in it than that. What is being driven at all the time, and what, in fact, slowly emerges as the result of this conflict between opposing theories, is a definitely ascertained set of rules by which nations shall be guided.

It is to this end, we take it, that the note of the American Government to England is chiefly directed. A long time in preparation, and frequently delayed beyond the date when it was to have been sent, Secretary Lansing's carefully studied communication sets out our case with precision and force. In denying the validity of British practices, above all in stating clearly that our Government will not be bound by the decisions of British prize courts, Mr. Lansing distinctly looks ahead. He must be contemplating not only continued diplomatic effort to maintain our point of view, and to protect the interests of American citizens, but the establishment, after the war, of the principles for which we contend. This might come about either by submitting the questions at issue to arbitration, or by the calling of an international congress to legislate, as it were, on the whole subject. Either way, the steady assertion of American rights will have been of great value in reaching the final decision. As we said of the notes to Germany, so it may now be said of the note to England, that our Government will thereby have furnished leading cases in international law.

Passing to details, Mr. Lansing's note is a strong arraignment of the British blockade of Germany. He argues that it was wrong in its original theory, and has been ineffective in its application—if so, it is not a blockade which neutrals are bound to recognize. Moreover, under it practices have grown up which have no warrant in international law, as previously understood. Indeed, the British Government has virtually conceded this, pleading the fact that "modern conditions" have made the old rule of search at sea impracticable. This is not wholly denied by Secretary Lansing; but he protests stoutly against taking American ships into port, and bringing them before prize courts, merely "on suspicion." If the boarding officer finds contraband, well and good. But it is another matter to seize a vessel and take her into harbor simply because he believes that if her cargo is entirely unloaded a few packages of goods with enemy destination may be discovered. That is a process not only most vexing and dilatory, but unwarranted; and against it our Department of State lodges a vigorous protest.

One effect of the keeping back of the note all these months is to give it the appearance of not being, in all respects, abreast of the facts. No notice is taken, for example, of the activity of British submarines in the Baltic. They seem to have driven German ships from those waters. The British Government may contend that they have, in fact, completed the blockade of Germany, so as to take away its "partial" character, and make it conform to the Declaration of Paris. No official notice to this effect has, however, yet been given. Furthermore, Mr. Lansing does not refer to the recent statement of Sir Edward Grey that British prize courts were not to proceed merely under British law; and that, in any event, neutral nations would not necessarily be bound by their decisions. This again opens the way for a final settlement of all the matters in controversy between the two Governments, whether by diplomatic adjustment, by reference to the Hague Tribunal, or by a congress of the nations.

The net impression of the note is that our Government has been impartial in watching for the infringement of American rights from any quarter, and means as zealously to maintain them against England as against Germany. Inevitably, the nature of the German outrage made it necessary to deal with it first and with a firm assertion of our national determination. But with that apparently removed from tense controversy, through Germany's backdown and apology and offer to make indemnity, the road was clear for this notably vigorous representation to the British Government. Its force and directness have not been impaired by its having been long discounted; and the whole note stands as an expression not only of American impartiality, as between the belligerents, but of the American purpose to uphold the rights of all neutrals as based more securely than upon the good will, or convenience, of the nations at war.

THE PRESIDENT'S SPEECH.

President Wilson's address last week before the Manhattan Club of New York was carefully prepared. Departing from his usual habit, he wrote it out in advance, and read it from a printed copy. This was a sign at once of the importance which he attributed to this utterance, and of his feeling that he was beginning a political campaign, to be carried on in Congress and throughout the country. The whole represents not only a new step on the President's part, but a new attitude. Between this speech and his message to Congress last December, there are noticeable differences. Then he referred to "some among us who are nervous and excited" about national defence, and declared that the American policy ought not to be determined by them, since "the question has not changed its aspects because the times are not normal." But now it is the "world ablaze with a terrible war," and the fact that "from one end of our own dear country to another men are asking what our own force is"—men who have, we suppose, got over being nervous and excited—which so impress the President that he comes out for a policy which in December he distinctly deprecated, and

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which, by his authority and influence, he squelched in Congress last winter.

It would be unfair to charge the President with advocating ambitious plans of militarism. He would doubtless still assert, as he did in his message to Congress, that he is against turning this country into "a military camp." Then he was opposed to "compulsory military service in times of peace," and we do not question that he would be to-day. The programme which he outlines is tentative. It is, indeed, already denounced by militarists as a wretched makeshift. But the significant thing is not the details but the spirit of the President's announcement. Details can be modified, but a policy, once fixed upon, mortgages the future. And many of the military-minded who to-day are privately laughing at President Wilson's schemes as ludicrously inadequate, will doubtless parade their support of him in the thought that, little by little, he will be inexorably pushed all the way along the military road.

That Mr. Wilson has the faintest idea of allowing himself thus to be captured by the military party, we do not for a moment believe. In fact, he utters plain warnings against the extremists. Our new forces are never to be used for "aggression of any kind," and not "for the satisfaction of any political or international ambition." Yes, so long as Mr. Wilson is President. But can he guarantee or bind his successors? Can he not think of a man who has been President, and who may be again, into whose hands it would be dangerous to put a giant's strength? And we fear that President Wilson has never measured the possibilities of the words "for defence." Purely for defence, we are to arm, he affirms, and he speaks of consulting our most skilled military experts. But to a really agile military expert, "defence" is a juggler's hat out of which can be drawn whatever he pleases. He will prove to you that there is really no defence so good as a violent offensive. Why, Germany is to-day waging a purely defensive war. She was "attacked," and, in order to defend her soil from invasion, was compelled herself to invade Belgium and France and Poland and Servia. Her sons are fighting "defensive" battles on far-flung lines. They may soon be defending Germany in Egypt and Persia. The truth is that when you once pledge yourself to do everything which the military experts say is necessary for defence, you are surrounding yourself with pitfalls, and exposing yourself to a thousand perils. Even if a President like Wilson could withstand them all, it would be easy to conceive of another rushing into them.

Mr. Wilson took occasion again to affirm the unselfish ideals of the United States. For this we must all thank him. He repeated his belief that this country will "never again take another foot of territory by conquest." We make no question that he holds to this with the firmest conviction. But he cannot be ignorant that other Presidents have similarly professed disinterested national motives, only to disown them later. On this point, a reading of the messages of President Polk relating to the Mexican War is instructive. That war, too, was "defensive." The Mexicans "attacked" us, and in order to defend ourselves we had to penetrate their territory a thousand miles and capture their capital. But the particular thing to notice is that Polk also repudiated "conquest." "A just and honorable peace, and not conquest," he told the Senate on August 4, 1846, was "our purpose in the prosecution of the war." But only a little more than a year later, he was blandly informing Congress: "It is well known that the only indemnity which it is in the power of Mexico to make . . . and the only means by which she can reimburse the United States for the expense of the war, is a cession to the United States of a portion of her territory." So much for starting out with the announcement of no "conquest"! President Wilson now says that such things were "the fruit of our thoughtless youth as a nation, and we have put them aside." He has, but have others?

The big questions in all this are whether the President can tie up the country; whether he can give any guarantee that the letting out of the waters may be checked at will; whether he will be able to insist upon his particular plan or be compelled to see it made the basis of an immense militarist agitation and propaganda; whether one Congress can bind another to carry out a scheme of continuous military appropriations; whether log-rolling politicians and army and navy contractors will not so fasten themselves upon the whole project, and muddle it, that the people will be disgusted. There is no disguising the great public and political significance of the President's speech. He is clearly making a hazard of new fortunes. For the moment, we doubt not, he will get an applauding response from all parts of the country. But the real difficulties, the deeper perils, will have to be confronted later.

WHERE THE WAR WILL BE DECIDED.

Kitchener's departure for the Near East has undoubtedly intensified popular opinion regarding the significance of the Balkan campaign as the "beginning of the end." There are anxieties in England concerning Egypt, and possibly India. The German press speaks jubilantly of a victorious thrust at the heart of the British Empire, and foresees Kitchener at the task of defending the Egypt which he consolidated. It was inevitable that from the beginning of the Teutonic invasion of Servia, and Bulgaria's entrance into the conflict, the attention of the world should be directed towards Suez. In part, this is due to the magic of vast possibilities. Unquestionably, the approach of German armies closer to that vital link in England's colonial possessions does raise all sorts of speculations.

No one will venture to say that an extension of the war to Egypt is altogether impossible. But sober and expert critics in England and Germany do not regard such an event as probable. If the war is to be decided on the field of battle, instead of by exhaustion, the decision must fall in what still remains the crucial point of contact, France and Belgium. A recent dispatch quotes from an address of the Kaiser to his troops in Belgium: "Important results are pending in the Balkans, where our troops and those of our courageous allies are bringing glory upon themselves. It is on the western front, however, that all eyes are turned, and the necessity of success here is paramount." Of English students of the war, the best-known, Hilaire Belloc, has declared that the attack on Servia is intended as a political diversion, with the object of creating discord and chaos among the Allies and affecting popular opinion among Germany's enemies. And the able Major Moraht, the most thoughtful of German military commentators, makes very much the same point. He describes the attack on Servia as primarily a strategic operation, of service "to the policies of the Central Powers and the Will to Conquer (*Siegesidee*) which animates us." This is as much as to say that the Balkan campaign is aiming primarily at a moral effect. Moraht insists that the belief in victory among the Allies is thoroughly shattered, that doubts and suspicions have arisen among Germany's opponents, that Italy, for example, has refused to place herself at the orders of Great Britain and France, and is determined to wage her own war.

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The Balkan campaign is thus a continuation of German policy as it was determined long before the outbreak of the war, but adapted to present circumstances. The iron ring around Germany had to be broken. It was to be done by victory on the field of battle, first France, then Russia, then England. Later the plan changed. It was to be first Russia and then France. But Russia, though defeated, did not acknowledge herself beaten. Neither was she tired out, and the plan of breaking up the iron ring, not through crushing victory, but through the seductions of a separate peace, fell through. The war became more than ever a war of attrition. In this contest the Allies were bound to win, if it was only a case of matching physical loss against physical loss. So the war, if won, must be won, from the German point of view, by moral attrition. How long would the Allies hold out if Germany held her own in the conquered lands of east and west and at the same time continued to keep up popular spirits at home by physical victories where they were still to be had, namely, in Servia? Observe how Major Moraht describes it. On the one hand, the will to conquer is to be nurtured at home; on the other hand, the belief in victory is to be shattered among the Allies. With German bulletins still recording victories, if only over the Servians, with Allied bulletins recording only deadlock, this war of endurance and "nerves" is bound to turn out as favorable for Germany as the actual test of armies has proved, when measured by the visible fruits of victory.

The vision of England with her back against the wall somewhere around Suez and the Pyramids is just the sort of thing to keep up flagging spirits at home and to accentuate depression among the Allies. And this is why the German press to-day concentrates on Egypt with much of that same finality of tone with which it spoke of the end of the war around Calais and in Russia. Press opinion in Germany, more than in any other country, has a way of dealing with universal and perpetual certainties. And to-morrow, when another opinion rules, that also is universally and perpetually certain. Even observers of the more cautious type cannot escape this tone of finality. Moraht spoke half a year ago of the Russians in retreat as a disorganized and discouraged "soldatesko." To-day he speaks of Germany in the west and in Russia as standing on the defensive. Moraht spoke contemptuously of Kitchener's gathering battalions, and was convinced that Germany's leaders would see to it that Kitchener had no leisure for building up a real army. To-day there are a million English soldiers in the west, and the German effort has turned in altogether a different direction.

If we study the progress of the German campaign in Servia, impressive though it has been, the heralded attack on Egypt is only a remote possibility. The Teutonic armies have been moving forward in Servia with the same machine-like precision which marked their advance into Russia. But that very precision is dependent upon long preparation and the proximity of sources of supply. Operating through the Sinai desert is by no means the same thing as operating close to the Danube.

ENDURANCE AND EFFICIENCY.

The Germans are not alone in their anxieties over the national food supply. High prices obtain in England and France. One of the problems which the Paris press has been discussing is the same that now confronts the German Government, namely, the prevention of speculation in food. This is the plain meaning of Berlin's official announcement that there is enough food for the people, but that prices must be regulated so as to ameliorate the hardships of the poor. Speculation in food is openly charged in the Paris newspapers. We are witnessing one of the inevitable effects of a long war in the wearing down of the first fine instincts of patriotism, and the reassertion of selfish interests. The tone of the German press is bitter in its implication that because of private selfishness and governmental incapacity the burdens of the war have fallen with special weight on the lower classes. The Government is apparently on the defensive when it goes to the pains of declaring in an official note that a large portion of the Socialist party agrees that the new food regulations are sufficient for the needs of "the whole nation." It may be that the problem is just as acute in France, and that our impressions of German conditions are partly shaped by the very foresightedness of the Berlin authorities. Germany is in the habit of taking drastic measures for the purpose of warding off a situation which other nations deal with thoroughly only when it arises.

There is, however, significance in the fact that the problem of a food supply manipulated to the disadvantage of the poor should ever arise in Germany. It compels people to revise fairly established notions about the extraordinary discipline, resourcefulness, patriotism, and unity of the German people. We now begin to discern the same limitations of humanity under which the less efficient and disciplined nations labor. The man who would make an extra profit out of the starvation of the poor is apparently not unknown in Germany. The selfish rich who find ways of evading the regulations for bread cards and meatless days have to be dealt with. The control of the food supply has been taken over from the provincial authorities by the Federal Government, which argues that not every German official, wherever found, is by definition a model of the highest conceivable efficiency. But above all the fact stands out that, while Germany may not be threatened with famine, she is plainly facing a shortage of food. It is all very well to throw the blame on the speculator, but food is usually not cornered when it exists in abundance. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* speaks of sinister conditions brought on by the blockade. Maximilian Harden says the German people are in distress. A South German paper whispers the dread word "famine." Official Berlin, in defending Zeppelin raids, speaks of "millions who are suffering not inconsiderable sacrifices."

This is a situation which will come as a surprise to those who have been persuaded of Germany's limitless capacities in rallying to the needs of a crisis. Last winter Germany's anxieties concerning food were to terminate automatically with the harvest of 1915. It was assumed that this harvest would be sufficient for a year, because it simply had to suffice, because Germany willed it so. The mere fact that four million men were away from the farms was no handicap. German ingenuity would utilize woman's labor, would utilize the Russian prisoners, would devise magic fertilizers by which the earth would give forth in increased abundance. That was nonsense, of course. For one thing, the rains could not be mobilized at the behest of the General Staff, and the crop of 1915 has suffered from drought. The story of extraordinary substitutes devised under pressure of war—substitutes for nitrate, for copper, for cotton, for wool, for foods—has been accepted seriously by a good many people because the story came from Germany. The legend of a Germany that has replaced everything with something just as good has been incorporated into serious economic studies of the war. But now we are beginning to see that there are limits even to what Germany and her people can do. We are brought back

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to the thought that perhaps democracy and individual liberty are not always synonymous with muddle, but, as President Eliot implied, in an address last week, may give rise to an efficiency of their own which we have been too ready to discard without waiting for definite results of the war and for knowledge of the price that the different nations are paying for the results so far obtained.

And these doubts of the perfect German efficiency are not confined to the outside world. The German press, in commenting on the Government's handling of the food problem, speaks of "abuses," "insufficient measures," and "dismal and unholy" policies. It is the inevitable outcome of fifteen months of war carried on with prodigious efforts and cost, and no end in sight. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* can only recommend drawing one's belt tighter and hacking a way through. But hacking through to what? The West is out of the question. The hacking process in Russia has come to an end, and the conquest of the Czar's grain lands has not relieved the situation. There is only Servia now to hack through. When Gen. Mackensen opens the way to Constantinople he has come no nearer to a source of food supply for the beleaguered German people. Asiatic Turkey is hardly in a position to feed the German Empire. Hence that very grim jest by the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, when it foresees the necessity of the German people "nourishing" itself on hate.

THE SUPREME COURT AND HUMAN RIGHTS.

The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States owed its origin to the desire to protect the negro freedmen in their newly acquired rights as human beings and as citizens of the United States. In the course of its application to the vast multitude of questions that have arisen under it, its effects have ranged into domains that have little or no connection with the great purpose that was in the minds of its framers. Our system of government, with the Supreme Court as final arbiter of the validity of all laws, has often been subjected to severe criticism on this account. Most persons who have studied the subject would agree that there is serious basis for the charge that the Fourteenth Amendment has, in important instances, been made, by judicial interpretation, to serve property interests, as distinguished from "human" interests, in a degree beyond that which its terms necessarily infer; and there are many who have the impression that, in point of fact, this has been substantially the only effect of the enactment, its primary purpose having practically played no part at all. That this last is a superficial and mistaken view will be apparent to any one who reflects that in relation to that primary purpose, in cases of unmistakable character, the Amendment operates automatically; as a general rule, it is only in questions that are more or less doubtful that it has been necessary to invoke the interposition of the courts.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the matter of the Arizona Anti-Alien Labor law, apart from its intrinsic importance, has a special interest as bearing not on some indirect or collateral effect of the Fourteenth Amendment, but on the very object that was in the minds of its framers. For while it is true that their primary motive was to protect the freedmen against oppression, it was not by inadvertence that they made the language of the Amendment broad enough to cover every case of such oppression that might arise in the future. Whether or not the thought of corporations as persons was in their mind, it is quite certain that every individual human being in every State of the Union was designedly covered by the language they deliberately chose, when they declared that no State shall "deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." In protecting alien residents of Arizona against a law which it regards as an abridgment of their right to work for a living, the Supreme Court not only acts upon both the letter and the spirit of the Fourteenth Amendment, but is protecting these aliens from precisely the kind of oppression which must have been specifically in the minds of its framers as regards the negroes, and against which, in the case of all persons, it was set up as a permanent and impregnable defence.

So much for the subject-matter of the case; there still remained, of course, the question whether the legislation at issue really came under the prohibition of the Amendment. There is ground for keen satisfaction in the circumstance that the Court, in its opinion handed down by Mr. Justice Hughes, goes to the fundamentals of this question. There is in this respect a great contrast between the action of the Court in this matter and the course which it so long followed concerning the disfranchising provisions of Southern State Constitutions. As to these, the Court pursued, year after year, a policy of staving off decision, while in this matter of anti-alien labor laws it has seized the first opportunity to make a thoroughgoing decision upon fundamental grounds; and, from the point of view of that statesmanship which is an essential element in the Supreme Court's conduct, the reasons for the difference are obvious. How trenchant is the language of Justice Hughes's opinion may be seen from a single extract:

> It requires no argument to show that the right to work for a living in the common occupations of the community is of the very essence of the personal freedom and opportunity that it was the purpose of the Fourteenth Amendment to secure. If this could be refused solely upon the ground of race or nationality, the prohibition of the denial to any person of the equal protection of the laws would be a barren form of words.

And he held that the Arizona law was invalid because the prohibition it laid upon private employers against having among their employees more than 20 per cent. of persons not citizens was "the assertion of an authority to deny to aliens the opportunity of earning a living." That the Court was unanimous except for one dissent based not upon the merits, but upon a question of form, will give to the decision and the opinion the highest possible authority.

It is well to remind ourselves, upon the occasion of such a decision, of the mighty, though unseen, part which our great court of last resort is playing all the time in the shaping of the nation's life. The Arizona Anti-Alien law, even the group of laws of similar character in other States, may not be of enormous import; and there are innumerable cases in which the immediate matter at issue in a decision of the Court is vastly less important than this. But, whether it be a question of keen human interest like this, or a trivial matter like that of the right of a sleeping-car company to put down an unused upper berth, the Supreme Court is ever on guard, protecting not meaningless technicalities, but the broadest and deepest principles of government and of human right. Decision after decision is rendered which makes more secure against invasion the very fundamentals of liberty and order; and there is no telling at what time of real crisis the bulwarks thus built up may prove a priceless protection against some obsession of the moment. This could not be if they were bulwarks of a stodgy standpatism; but, as abundantly shown in the record of recent years, and as especially exemplified in such a man as Justice Hughes, the spirit of the Court is not at all this, but a spirit of mellow conservatism, informed with a full sympathy for rational progress.

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Foreign Correspondence

FRANCE, THE VATICAN, AND PEACE.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, October 23.

An instance of patriotic discretion in speech should be counted to the credit of the French press, and it exists. From the beginning, the utterances—or rather the lack of utterance—of the present Pope with regard to certain flagrant acts of war saddened the hearts of the faithful in Belgium and France. The stand, ambiguous to say the least, which was taken by certain church organs in Rome, the distinctly pro-German attitude of the higher Spanish clergy, and certain incidents in the United States added to the general uneasiness. The official toning down of the sensational interview which the Pope granted to a reputable correspondent of the Paris *Liberté* did little more than encourage French and Belgian Catholics to bear patiently the silence of the Head of the Church in circumstances where any utterance was sure to be misinterpreted by one side or the other.

When Italy finally entered the international conflict, the hearty benediction of her troops by Italian Cardinals and Bishops did more than anything else which has happened to allay the growing religious discomfort. Even the Pope's nephew marched off to the war with his uncle's blessing, which was surely not *ex-officio*. Exaggerated reports of Cardinal Gibbons's peace mission to President Wilson—which seemed possible only for a "German peace"—stirred but for a moment the dull surface of religious resignation.

Even blasphemers recognize that an international spiritual authority cannot easily take sides between its warring children of different nations. Indeed, the very neutral nations which signed the original treaties and later Hague conventions guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgium and Luxemburg kept silence when treaties and agreements were violated—and Pope Pius the Tenth, who also kept silence, had signed neither.

Surprise was felt that Benedict the Fifteenth found so little to say it was almost worse than nothing, when priests were slaughtered, religious communities violated, and the Catholic University burned in Belgium, and when France saw her most memorable cathedral church ruined wantonly. It seemed that, at Rome, Cardinal Mercier and the Bishop of Namur for the Belgian faithful and the French Cardinals for their own had scant credit. Later came the imperious address of loyalty from German Cardinals to their Emperor, assuring him that they would demand from Rome the condemnation of the French book exposing the wrongs which Catholicism was suffering from Germany. The rector of the Catholic University faculty of Paris, who is responsible for the book, has now received assurances that the German Cardinals have not made their demand.

With the other tumult of this long war, religious feeling has gradually settled down in strictly national channels. It is only the intermittent cry from the Vatican—Peace! peace! when there can be no peace—that now for a casual moment stirs disagreeably the religious consciousness.

To the outside, the only interest of all this is for France after the war. There has not really been the least sign that the Pope ever intended to take sides or—worse still—to try to persuade right to accept wrong in the name of peace. The French mean something more than a formula when they set as the end of their fighting a "just" peace. Peoples whose language was moulded by Catholicism say "just" where Calvinists say "righteous," but they also mean "justice" in the strict sense. It is perhaps not the Pope's duty to judge in the present war, as he was credited with saying in the ill-famed interview; and it is surely prudence as well as duty not to interfere.

Looking back on what has happened so far, the only questions which the outsider has a right to ask are—What influence is the attitude of the Vatican likely to have on religion among the French and Belgian peoples? What effect will it have in the resumption of official relations between the Government of France and the Pope? And what about the participation of the Pope in final negotiations of peace?

No one now denies that the sobering thoughts of ever-present death in war have led to a very general religious revival among soldiers who are exposed, that is, among the able-bodied men of the country who are now in the prime of life. It is not a conversion, which was not to be expected naturally. One of the fallacies regarding France was that the mass of Frenchmen are deliberately irreligious. This war has proved that, when obliged to deliberate, very many turn to religion, as did their fathers before them. If these Frenchmen now show themselves relatively religious, it must be because they had a religion beforehand. Benedict the Fifteenth himself must have remembered that when a Roman Catholic missionary or Sister of Charity is descried by Greenland's icy mountains or India's coral strand, it is usually a Frenchman or Frenchwoman.

Now religion of this kind, recovered or intensified, pays little heed to what is going on higher up in the organization of the Christian community. When Irish bishops and even the Pope at Rome turned with averted eyes from Home Rule, there was not a ripple in the faith which comforted the deathbed of the Irish peasant. In France, where there is only newspaper talk, and moderate at that, the question of the Pope's stand towards the war does not even arise with regard to the Pope's religion. At most, there may be a diminution in the Peter-pence that comes from France—largely out of the pocket of the seeming infidel.

For any resumption of official relations between the French Republic and the Vatican, the question is different. War has so far produced no essential change in the composition of French Governments to make such a resumption probable. Perhaps it is not desirable, either for religion or for the Republic, that such relations should again exist in home affairs, and some *modus vivendi* may yet be found by which a Republic sternly ignoring religion in theory may in practice protect the religious effort which most advances the interests of France in the Orient. What is to become of Syria will have much more weight with French Governments than the revival of religious practice among those who are now soldiers.

As to eventual negotiation of peace, the same may be said of the Pope as of the President of the United States. Their very neutrality unfits them for settling questions of "justice" in this war. If, however, the Allies are not victorious enough to secure a "just" peace, but have to content themselves with the German "honorable" peace, then we are likely to have further repetitions of Hague proceedings—without guarantee or sanction, while waiting for the next war. Here, too, only the effective demand of Germany and Austria could force the admission of the Pope among the negotiators, and then only in the supposition that Germany is beaten enough to accept neutrals' help in compounding her own quarrel and its consequences. Besides, there is the precedent of the Hague conventions from which Leo the Thirteenth was deliberately excluded.

In a book which was greatly read in my youth, it was told of a man to whom people came with the moral problems which grieved them sorest: *And the soldiers likewise demanded of him, saying, And what shall we do? And he said to them, Do violence to no man* [*Put no man in fear,* the margin has it], *neither accuse any falsely; and be content with your wages.*

Of course, there were no Hague conventions at that time.

OXFORD AT WAR.

By JAMES F. MUIRHEAD.

LONDON, October 26.

"The college is a barracks, and our tutors are superior officers, and Fellows are elected because they are lieutenants of the Flying Corps that they may make 'physical research with special reference to aerial warfare.'" In these words the *'Varsity* (the Oxford *Crimson*) sums up the present situation in England's foremost university. An admirable little "Handy Guide to Oxford," just published by Mr. C. R. L. Fletcher (formerly Fellow of All Souls and Magdalen), is "specially written for the wounded," and begins with an excursion from the Third Southern Central Hospital (once the Examination Schools) to Magdalen College, just across the way. The hackneyed Latin tag must now be read "Cedat armis toga." A day at Oxford shows at every step that the Grove of Academe has verily been transformed into "the flinty and steel couch of war"; but for the British visitor, at least, the tragedy is glorified by pride in its heroism and devotion.

Instead of the usual crowd of undergraduates (3,000 or more), there are now hardly 600, a number strangely similar to the number of Oxford men (562) who up to now have fallen in the war. The freshmen number a scant 250—a nadir for which we have to go back to the Napoleonic wars of a century ago to find a parallel—and the Britain of that era had much less than half the population of the Britain of to-day. Of the present handful of undergraduates about 100 are Americans, and to judge from the evidence of the college quads, a considerable proportion of the remainder are natives of British India. The Rhodes Scholar of to-day is, in many ways, a melancholy spectacle, "frustrate of his purpose and his hopes." The Oxford he is in is by no means the Oxford of his dreams. He has to consort almost wholly with other Americans, an association for which he scarcely needed to cross the Atlantic. There are no University sports, there are no Union

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debates. The American Club is almost the only undergraduates' institution with any life left.

Of the 8,000 Oxford men enrolled in the military forces of England, about one-twelfth are already reported as dead or missing.* The weekly *University Gazette* of to-day has nine or ten black-bordered pages showing each college's quota of slain. The corresponding issues of 1913 announce one or two deaths, occasionally none at all. The rival claims of the colleges for distinction are now sadly different from what they used to be. Balliol boasts the first rowing "Blue" to fall in the war, All Souls the first Don to die for his country. The first Victoria Cross given to a Territorial officer was awarded to a member of Queen's. In March of this year, eighty of the eighty-nine "Blues" of 1913-14 were on active service. The instructors have vied with the students in patriotic sacrifice. At first sight the Lecture List looks much as usual, but the frequency of the cabalistic entry "lecturer on S. and M." is alone enough to tell the tale. This means that the instructors in question, busily engaged in Government work throughout the week, run "up" to Oxford for the week-end to crowd their usual course into lectures on Saturday and Monday. It is notable that the legal instructors tend to give their help at the Ministry of Munitions, the historians (probably in virtue of their linguistic accomplishments) to the War Trade Office. The chemists, happy men, are able to remain in their own laboratories, where, however, they are mainly engaged in researches and experiments for strictly military ends. Some of the instructors will, alas, never give lecture or handle test-tube again; and one cannot help a double portion of sorrow at the apparent "waste" of these gifted young scholars and scientists in the trenches. Many of the dons and officials belong to the Oxford Volunteer Training Corps, which is commanded by the Public Orator, and includes in its ranks the Poet Laureate.

The external signs of the military occupation of Oxford are ubiquitous. The parks are full of trenches; drilling goes on briskly in the open spaces; St. Giles is temporarily an army transport depot for enormous motor lorries and workshops. In several colleges, where members of the Officers Training Corps are quartered, khaki is much more in evidence than gowns. In Magdalen we found Colonial soldiers in sun-helmets, just returned from the Dardanelles, feeding the deer.

The most significant feature of all is, however, the fact that beds for 1,200 wounded soldiers now occupy the Examination Schools, Somerville College, and the Town Hall. It is perhaps not generally known that the Schools (now, officially, the Third Southern General Hospital) were noted among the buildings set apart for base hospitals, in case of need, half-a-dozen years ago under Lord Haldane's sway at the War Office. All requisite arrangements, down to the staffing of the hospital, had been made in advance; and the necessary transformation was thus accomplished at a minimum of time, cost, and labor. To the lay visitor the place certainly looks as if it had always been intended for its present use, and the scent of iodoform seems its natural atmosphere. The commodious modern buildings of Somerville College were found much more suitable for hospital purposes than the conventual cells of the men's colleges. The girls have found temporary quarters in the North Quad of Oriel, which the undergraduates, not to be baulked of their joke, even if the heavens fall, now call Sororiel College. There was, alas, plenty of room for them, as Oriel has sent a larger proportion of her members to the front than any other college.

One other feature of Oxford's arrangements in time of war may be noted. About twenty-four Belgian professors, mostly scientists, have been provided with modest homes and stipends, and are busily at work in the libraries and laboratories of the University.

The immense decrease of fees means a very serious strain on the finances of the University. The difficulties thus arising have been to some extent met by the generosity of the wealthier colleges, the trustees of the Endowment Fund, and private donors; but the problem remains a serious one. The statutes of the University and its colleges are, of course, devised for normal times, and it became necessary to obtain powers to deal with questions arising out of the transference of professors from academic to national functions, the status of Fellows and Scholars, and so on. The University and Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge (Emergency Powers) act has thus been passed, in order to help the universities to adapt themselves to the confused conditions of the times and to safeguard the interests of those who have responded to their country's call.

Oxford has kept the flag flying, and is justified of her children. This venerable university, the home of lost causes, the target of the practical man's ridicule, the forum of speculation and discussion, is at this crisis found to have her feet firmly planted on the solid realities of life. The atmosphere of the University is saturated with facts. Oxford knows in a supreme fashion what has taken place and what is taking place. Its members realize the situation so profoundly that they spend little time on speculation as to the future, though they realize that that will involve great breaks with the traditions of the past. It is significant that one at least of the highest University authorities confines his newspaper reading to the official communiqués. There is, I understand, no clique here which skeptically questions the values of those realities which the nation believes to be threatened as they have never been threatened before. Humanitarians like Prof. Gilbert Murray, liberal philosophers like Dr. L. P. Jacks, physicians like Sir William Osler, economists like Prof. W. J. Ashley, publicists like Dr. A. V. Dicey, historians like Mr. A. L. Smith, poets like Laurence Binyon, and artists like Prof. Selwyn Image are all alike "stalwarts" in their attitude as to the prosecution of the war and the danger of an inconclusive peace. Their views, and the views of the University as a whole, have been admirably embodied in the long series of Oxford War Pamphlets.

*Details will be found in "The Oxford Roll of Service" (Oxford University Press; 2s. net), by E. S. Craig, Assistant Registrar to the University. Dr. Alexander Hill, Hon. Sec. of the Bureau of Universities of the Empire, finds that the British universities and colleges have contributed over 50 per cent. of their men to the war. He asserts that, rather contrary to expectation, the German universities have contributed less than 20 per cent. The returns show that the German universities are much less depleted than those of Great Britain.

Vicarious Thinking

A COLLEGE PRESIDENT DEPLORES THE INTELLECTUAL SLOTH OF AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS.

By WILLIAM T. FOSTER.

A college undergraduate, writing his "Confession" in a recent number of the *Outlook*, admits that he knows of a few students with a zeal for knowledge so intense that not even a college course can quench it; but everything, he says, "unites to extinguish it—the quality of the instruction, the lack of any demand for scholarship, and, above all, the alluring ease of the environment."

However misleading may be the remarks of this undergraduate, or those of Mr. Dooley, as to details, both of these amiable critics have hit upon the chief weakness of the American college: our students have too much done for them and too little required of them. Mr. Dooley says that, nowadays, when a lad goes to college, "the prisidint takes him into a Turkish room, gives him a cigareet an' says: 'Me dear boy, what special branch iv larnin' wud ye like to have studied f'r ye be our compitint profissors?'"

Too much thinking is done for college students by tutors and lecturers and writers of textbooks. As long as boys and girls are satisfied with such predigested food, we can hardly expect them to have moral or religious convictions. The first need among college students is a quickening of intellectual enthusiasm.

College courses should necessitate less memorizing and more reasoning. There should be fewer lectures. You can lead a boy to lectures, but you cannot make him think—at least, not often by this, the easiest of all methods of instruction. It is possible for a student to graduate from almost any college without an original idea in his head. If he will give back to his professors what they have given him in lectures and in prescribed books, he may don a cap and gown and receive a degree. The highest grade, it is true, is reserved in some colleges for those who show independence of thought; but the "gentleman's grade" is still the badge of mediocrity which many present as their sole passport. I have known students to pass courses in even mathematics and formal logic by memorizing selected pages, with only the vaguest idea of what it all meant.

When a student has to write on any subject, his first idea as a rule is to look it up in a book. The college girl who, when asked to write a description of a sunset, applied to the librarian at once for a book on sunsets, was following the usual method. When students undertake to prepare for a debate and cannot find an argument in the library, all put together, they usually want to change the subject. Another substitute for thinking is suggested by a letter I received the other day which read: "Dear Sir: I have been chosen for our champion State debate on

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Government ownership of railroads. Please send me six points on the affirmative. Thanking you in advance, Yours truly." Even the thesis required of a candidate for the degree of doctor of philosophy, which is supposed to be original work, does not always reveal original thinking. Some of these theses are no less mechanical and no more valuable than the accounts a bank clerk winds out of his calculating machine. In many colleges boys are virtually required to support their teams, turn up their trousers, choose their companions, and walk across the campus according to tradition. Such courses might better be elective, but thinking should be compulsory.

From year to year I have had young graduates of a number of theological schools in my classes in argumentation. They are difficult to teach because, in many cases, they appear to have acquired fluency of speech without the habit of thought. They do not distinguish between assertion and evidence. As preachers they have become accustomed to assert what they please with no one to answer them back—a dangerous experience for any one, prince or pauper, pope or prelate. They appear to be disciples of the author of a textbook on "Oratory" for young preachers who recommends his own method, as follows: "I went to my room, locked the door, placed the Bible before me on a mantel, opened it at random, and then on whatever passage my eye chanced to rest, proceeded to deliver a discourse of ten minutes. . . . At first I found it very difficult to speak so long right to the point. But, then, if I couldn't talk *on* the subject, I would talk *about* it—making good remarks and moral reflections—being careful to keep up the flow, and say something to the end of the term allotted for the exercise."

Four hundred and thirty-seven essays on "The Essential Place of Religion in Education" have been submitted to the National Education Association in competition for a prize of one thousand dollars. As one of the judges, I have read the best of these essays, many of which were written by ministers and teachers. Nothing in them seemed to me more conspicuous than the lack of logical structure. Most of the writers used undefined terms with shifting meanings, and at times with no apparent meaning at all. Few of the writers felt the necessity of proceeding from evidence to conclusion by logical reasoning; yet all were attempting to prove a proposition. They were arguing, but with little regard for the principles of argumentation. In short, they revealed no power of sustained thinking.

One obstacle to intellectual enthusiasm is the traditional conservatism of colleges. New ideas disturb the academic calm. The teacher is most comfortable who stays in the beaten path, teaching what he was taught and teaching it in the same way. Unless the college teacher takes resolute measures to resist the deadening influences of his position, his thinking is in danger of confinement to a small and diminishing circle. This is the danger referred to in the saying that every occupation has its disease: painters have painters' colic, plumbers have lead poisoning, and college professors have the academic mind. The non-conformist gets into trouble. Woodrow Wilson is safe enough as President of the American people, but as president of a university he had too many new ideas. He made men think about questions which they preferred to regard as settled once and for all by their ancestors.

Certain professors have been refused re-election lately by several universities apparently because they set their students to thinking in ways objectionable to the trustees. It would be well if more teachers were dismissed because they fail to stimulate thinking of any kind. We can afford to forgive a college professor what we regard as the occasional error of his doctrine, especially as we may be wrong, provided he is a contagious centre of intellectual enthusiasm. It is better for students to think about heresies than not to think at all; better for them to climb new trails, and stumble over error if need be, than to ride forever in upholstered ease on the crowded highway. It is a primary duty of a teacher to make a student take an honest account of his stock of ideas, throw out the dead matter, place revised price marks on what is left, and try to fill his empty shelves with new goods.

The "undergraduate" does well to complain of the "alluring ease of the environment," for the growing tendency towards luxurious living is one cause of the wane of intellectual enthusiasm among college students. The New England colleges, one hundred years ago, provided a better environment for study than they provide for all their students to-day, and the most magnificent of modern graduate schools has yet to show whether it will prove more stimulating to scholarship than the humblest college of a generation ago. Even the large universities of our frontier States have increasing numbers of boys who appear to have lost the power of walking from one college building to another. The freshman, stretched out in a barber's chair, with one man working at his head, another at his feet, and a woman at his hands, often acts as though he expected to have his mind taken care of with as little effort on his part. College fraternities, on the whole, have made matters worse. Even their efforts in recent years to prod their delinquent members seem to be prompted by other than intellectual interests. The history of fraternity houses at some colleges is a record of organized competition in luxury, usually maintained on borrowed money.

Another obstacle to intellectual enthusiasm is the dominance of intercollegiate athletics. Out-of-door games should provide recreation as a preparation for study rather than as a substitute for study. But intercollegiate athletics having won supremacy, students do not tolerate conflicting interests. Their own publications, the country over, if distribution of space is a true criterion, indicate that they regard intercollegiate athletics as more important than the combined offerings of art, music, literature, social service, politics, philosophy, and religion. This excessive interest in athletics by proxy is antagonistic to scholarly ambitions and to the cultivation of habits of sustained thinking.

Without habits of this kind students are not likely to find their way to religious foundations. No great truth comes without lasting incentives for the pursuit of truth. Transient and secondary interests in thinking will not suffice. Many college students who think a little about religion find the experience overwhelming. Encountering doubts concerning certain beliefs which they had once accepted without question as essentials of religion, they are inclined to give up everything rather than make the effort necessary to achieve new religious convictions. It is easier to have no convictions. Almost any course is easier for the young people of our time than staying with their difficulties, and bearing the birth-pains of new ideas, until they have builded their own durable bases of faith. For them a little thinking is a dangerous thing. They must come to feel the zest of the struggle—the keen joy of studying their way through—until they can say with Mrs. Browning, "If heads that think must ache, perforce, then I choose headaches."

Notes from Two Capitals

GLADSTONE UNDER THE MICROSCOPE.

OBSERVED BY SIR HENRY LUCY.

To the November number of the *Cornhill Magazine* Mrs. Asquith contributes some notes of a visit paid to Hawarden in December, 1889. They have the charms of vivacity and frankness. Designed with intent of throwing fresh light on Mr. Gladstone, like the quality of mercy, they are twice blessed, since they unconsciously reveal the personality of another, and in her way scarcely less interesting, individual—to wit, the author.

In a long walk taken with her host through the woods and grounds of Hawarden, Miss Tennant seized the opportunity to put the octogenarian statesman in the confessional. "Do tell me," she winningly said, "if you had to die to-morrow, what particular thing in yourself do you fancy has contributed more than anything else to your fame?"

As the House of Commons well knew, the Old Parliamentary Hand was not easily caught at question time. The inquiry was momentarily left unanswered by putting another. "In a similar situation"—that was his characteristically courteous method of alluding to his companion's suggestion of sudden death on the morrow—"what would you say about yourself?" Miss Tennant, thus posed, modestly admitted possession of "wonderful insight into character." Thus encouraged, Mr. Gladstone named power of concentration as the quality which more than any other had contributed to his success.

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Unfortunately, in the course of another ramble this supreme power failed him. On starting, it occurred to a little black Spitz dog that he would like to join the company. This he did uninvited, and made constant demands on Mr. Gladstone's attention by retrieving sticks thrown in baffling directions. "Our conversation," Miss Tennant complains, "was constantly interrupted by Mr. Gladstone's remarks to the dog, while he stooped, as pleased as any schoolboy and quite as active, to pick up sticks and throw them for the brute to retrieve. I internally ached to throw the Spitz after them." Perhaps the reader will be obliged to the dog for creating an interlude that showed the usually grave statesman in a new and charming light. Here is another, different but equally vivid, pen-and-ink portrait. Going into Mr. Gladstone's library just before eight o'clock on a Sunday morning, Miss Tennant found him reading at a little table in front of the fire arrayed in an old black and white gardening hat, "like a sailor's hat, the brim sloping and curly with wear, a short plaid cape reaching below his elbows, and a woollen scarf round his neck. His shutters had not been unfastened, and the room was quite dark except for a single candle behind the old gentleman's head."

Miss Tennant's "wonderful insight into character" is illustrated by many shrewd remarks. "Mr. Gladstone," she writes, "is a deeply, sensitively religious man. He is famous not because the British people think him so clever, but because they think him so good. His critical faculty is not fine. Any one knowing him and wishing to impress him as being clever could easily impose on him. A woman would have to be very stupid or very honest to persuade him that she was not a remarkable woman."

Present visitors to Hawarden are of course excepted from the scope of these reflections.

In another passage she repeats what harsher critics were accustomed to say of Mr. Gladstone during his lifetime. "He is dangerously plausible to himself as well as to other people. He has no idea how much he loves power. It is his passion. It has come out of his heart into his head. At times it has carried obstacles away; at other times it has carried him away."

Miss Tennant graciously concedes to Mr. Gladstone that sense of humor others denied him. "It is a little grim and Scotch when intellectual, and rather clownish in its fun. Street-boy chat, practical joking of an amiable kind, all please him."

While in residence at Hawarden, Mr. Gladstone was always called at half-past seven in the morning, walking across the park to early service at a church where his son-in-law officiated. This early up-getting was one of his daily sacrifices. He did not like turning out at so untimely an hour. Once, falling unconsciously into Miss Tennant's manner, I asked him how long he slept at nights. "I always sleep eight hours. I should like to make it nine, and," he added with that twinkle of the eyes that suffused his countenance with a look of the questioned humor, "I think I could do with ten."

In relation to this question of a sense of humor, there is a well-known story. Some one in his company quoted a cynical remark of Disraeli's, laughing over what he called its humor. "You call it humorous?" said Mr. Gladstone with that angry flash in his eyes that genially reminded Mr. Lecky of the look of a vulture, "I call it devilish."

Though in most ways naturally antagonistic to his lifelong rival, Mr. Gladstone had for him some tenderness in his head if not in his heart. From the top of the bookcase in his cherished Temple of Peace at Hawarden, a bust of Disraeli looked down upon him. Talking to Miss Tennant, he said, certainly in no unfriendly way, "Dizzy was a wonderful judge of his immediate surroundings, friends, secretaries, and officials. Not a very good judge of the House, and absolutely no judge of the country." Oddly enough, Lord Acton, summing up Mr. Gladstone, put things just the other way about. "He is," he said, "a good judge of the country, a fair judge of the House of Commons, and no judge at all of his intimates and family."

While Miss Tennant was disposed to sit entranced at the feet of the great statesman, treasuring every word he uttered, her generous nature declined to let all the advantage of intellectual intercourse be on one side. Mr. Gladstone might know a thing or two, but Margot was acquainted with others, and was not backward in communicating them. On the whole, her companion found her a little hard to please. Discussing Goethe, she chilled his more enthusiastic approval by remarking that beyond "Faust," "Egmont," his lyrics, and some beautiful verses here and there, she "found Goethe rather heavy." Mr. Gladstone venturing on the remark that Shakespeare and Aristophanes contained the best humor in literature, Margot corrected him with the remark that "Shakespeare's sense of humor was very uneven and sometimes (like Goethe) rather heavy." Nor did more or less famous painters of modern and ancient times meet with unqualified approval. Holl's well-known portrait of Mr. Gladstone, hung above the fireplace in the dining-room at Hawarden, she "condemned as a portrait, even suspected it as a work of art." As for Raphael, like a once popular person in London society crossing the Atlantic, she was when in Italy "rather disappointed with this master."

There is striking testimony to the pleasure with which Mr. Gladstone regarded and remembered this visit. Immediately after Miss Tennant's departure, he, as was Mr. Wemmick's custom on an occasional afternoon, dropped into poetry.

When Parliament ceases and comes the recess,
And we seek, in the Country, rest after distress,
As a rule upon visitors place an embargo,
But make an exception in favour of Margot.

For she brings such a treasure of movement and life,
Fun, spirit, and stir, to folk weary with strife.
Though young and though fair, who can hold such a cargo
Of all the good qualities going, as Margot?

Probably the statesman approaching his third term of Premiership was not so proud of some of his more famous triumphs as he was of writing these verses with their ingenious rhymes for Margot.

WILLIAM PITT KELLOGG.

The news that reaches us from day to day about the progress of affairs in Mexico and Haiti with Governments organized under the auspices of the United States, must make interesting reading for one resident of the District of Columbia. You would hardly think, to look at him, that he would find anything absorbing in the details of riots and revolutions, fugitive rulers, and *de facto* uncertainties. In his unpretentious bearing, his serious face with its frame of white hair and almost white moustache, his broad-brimmed soft hat, demure suit of black, and generally clerical presence, your shrewder guess would be that he was a professional man from the near South—a minister of one of the pioneer churches, a family doctor, or an instructor of youth on vacation, and you would be inclined to skepticism when told that he is one of the politicians who have made real history; a man without whose aid the Republican party would have gone out of power when Grant quitted the White House, and who, during Arthur's Administration, might have made Congress wholly Democratic if at one juncture the President had rebuffed his overtures. He is none other than William Pitt Kellogg, the star actor of the reconstruction drama in Louisiana.

Most people address Mr. Kellogg as "Governor," others as "Senator," still others as "Judge," and a few as "General." In truth, he has borne all these titles, and several more. He was a delegate to the Republican convention that nominated Fremont in 1856, and of that which nominated Lincoln in 1860. He was a Lincoln elector, and believes that he is the only one still living. Born in Vermont, he had migrated to Illinois and become a lawyer there, and one of Lincoln's earliest acts as President was to appoint him, though then only thirty years of age, Chief Justice of the Territory of Nebraska. But the Civil War broke out, and he soon exchanged his ermine for a pair of epaulettes, and rose from a colonelcy to the command of a brigade. In 1865 he was appointed Collector of the Port of New Orleans, and became so active a factor in local politics that the wave of reconstruction swept him into the United States Senate. Then he was named for Governor by the Republicans, whose claim to have elected him was disputed with force and arms by the Democrats, and for a while Louisiana had two governments. Presently, the rioting reached such a stage of fierceness that Kellogg, driven from the State executive buildings, took refuge in the Custom House, and directed his Administration from there. President Grant sided with him, and by the use of Federal troops held him in power till the Hayes-Tilden contest of 1876 came on.

It was to Kellogg that William E. Chandler telegraphed the warning that the Republican cause was lost without Louisiana, and it was Kellogg who, as Governor, signed the certificates of the eight Republican electors who voted for Hayes, with results which for a few days raised the spectre of a second Civil War. He was one of the Governors who had to give way when Hayes put into effect his programme of sectional conciliation, but the Republican Legislature elected him to the Senate again, and the Senate seated him in defiance of the efforts of the Democratic Legislature to get his election nullified. Later he sat in the House for one Congress. Could Anthony Hope have crowded more romance into the career of one of his fictitious heroes?

Kellogg is a pleasant enough conversationalist, but prefers leaving most of the talking to the other party. He is no raconteur. If he were, he could tell the full story of an interview he once had with President Arthur. A controversy had arisen between them over some policy that Kellogg deemed vital, but on which the President was disposed to be stubborn.

"Think twice, Mr. President," Kellogg is

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reported as saying. "If you persist in your refusal, nothing is left for me but to resign my seat in the Senate. Would you like that?"

Arthur, who knew Kellogg never uttered bare threats, did think twice. The Senate, by a coalition between the Republicans and the Virginia Readjusters, was evenly divided politically, with David Davis, a Republican, in the chair and privileged to decide the issue when there was a tie vote. For Kellogg to drop out would mean not only the loss of one Republican, but the seating of a Democrat in his place, and the House was already Democratic. It took but a minute or two to review the situation, and Arthur yielded his point.

One of the men whom Kellogg used to like best in Washington, and who seemed to have a very kindly feeling for him, was Gen. Sherman. Both were warmly hated in various parts of the South, the one for his memorable march through Georgia, and the other for his conspicuous activities in the carpet-bag era. A common sight in Congress, while Kellogg was a member, was the grizzled head of the General in confidential proximity to the smoother one of the masterful politician, during one of Sherman's frequent visits to the Capitol, when the two veterans exchanged whispered comments on the men and measures of the day. Kellogg is no longer a power in politics, for he is eighty-four years of age; but his taste for the old game, and his interest in every important move made in it, particularly in the far South, is as keen as ever, and will not die till he does.

TATTLER.

Correspondence.

"THE CASE OF MISS CAVELL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot escape the feeling that much that has been written in this country and in England on the case of Miss Cavell is not only unfair to the Germans, but rather degrading to Miss Cavell, to her sex, and to the cause for which she so nobly sacrificed herself.

The *Nation*, in its issue of October 28, finds it necessary to go back to the reign of James II before it can find a case in English history sufficiently shocking to compare with the action of the German court-martial. It cannot find "the like of" the Cavell case in any occurrence since the execution of Alice Lisle for sheltering fugitives from Monmouth's army, after that army had been defeated and dispersed.

These two cases are surely far from similar. Alice Lisle's act was performed at a time when there was no war. Monmouth's rebellion was utterly crushed. His followers were all either dead, captured, or in hiding. It was humanly impossible for them or any of them, singly or collectively, to do any injury to the government of James II. Alice Lisle simply tried to shelter some wretched, helpless hares from the pursuing hounds. Neither she, nor the men she tried to help, could possibly—if they would—have harmed the powers that were. The proceedings against them were actuated solely by motives of revenge, unmitigated by any element of self-protection.

Miss Cavell, on the other hand, was engaged in furnishing soldiers to the Allied armies. Living in a place under German control, she was secretly recruiting troops for Germany's enemies. Her acts were acts of direct and conscious participation, on the anti-German side, in a war which could by no means be said to be ended. And these acts were being conducted by underground methods within the German lines.

When spies of a hostile army are caught, they are usually executed at once, without regard to sex. This may be a barbarous practice, but all the present belligerent nations, as well as all other civilized and Christian nations, regard it as a just and necessary one. Miss Cavell's act was, perhaps, not technically espionage, but, to my uninitiated mind, her activities seem to have been even more dangerous, to the Government against whom they were directed, than those of most spies. If, then, it is not barbarous to execute spies after a military trial, I cannot see why it was barbarous to execute Miss Cavell after a military trial—granted that the "offence" in both cases is legally recognized, which appears to be an undisputed fact. The French, Belgian, and English soldiers whom Miss Cavell helped across the border are now engaged in killing Germans. Surely, we cannot blame the Germans for wishing to put a stop to this, and to deter other people, if possible, from doing likewise. According to German military law, it appears, these actions are punishable with death. Being opposed to the death penalty under any and all circumstances, I cannot approve of this; but I cannot see why it is more "barbarous" than—for instance—the execution of spies. And no French or English officer would hesitate to execute a German spy caught within his lines—whatever the sex of the spy.

At any rate, it seems to me that only a false "chivalry" can expect a woman to be favored on account of her sex under such circumstances. To make such claims is unworthy of Miss Cavell and is an insult to womankind. Miss Cavell was evidently a strong, brave woman, who deliberately chose to risk her life for her country. All honor to her. She knew what she was doing; her eyes were fully open; when she was caught she scorned to lie or play the baby; she took her medicine—I was about to say, like a man, but her act was one of those which show that courage—of whatever sort—knows no restrictions of sex. All that I have seen of her history seems to indicate that she would have been ashamed of the antiquated "chivalry" which has been so much invoked to condemn her judges. The work which she did for her country was just as good and valuable work (and therefore just as injurious to the Germans) as any man could have done in her place. She did it intelligently, consciously—in short, as any real man or woman would have done it; knowing very well what the consequences would be if she were discovered, and willing to suffer them.

There are, then, only two grounds on which it can be argued that it was "barbarous" to execute her. One is the ground that most or all acts of war, and particularly the customary treatment of spies, are barbarous. With this proposition I should cheerfully—or rather sadly—agree; but it would scarcely furnish a good ground for an indictment against Germany on the part of any of the nations which are at present vying with her in upholding civilization and Christianity. The other is that conception of woman sometimes called "mediæval" (though apparently it still flourishes), which would make all women irresponsible chattels, who cannot be punished for the same reason that children and insane people cannot be punished—because they are not responsible for their acts; they are not, in the full sense of the term, human beings. This is why it seems to me an insult to the whole sex to say that it was exceptionally barbarous, as compared with other acts of war, performed every day by both sides, to execute Miss Cavell.

Mr. E. A. Powell, in the November *Scribner's* (p. 525), tells of the shooting of a German woman for espionage by the French in Alsace. The French were regretful, of course, but "she was endangering the army"; this is the French for "military necessity." Why does military necessity excuse a Frenchman or an Englishman for doing what would be unspeakable barbarity if done by a German? I have heard no lamentations or denunciations anent the death of this German heroine; Mr. Powell does not even give her name.

Lest my views be supposed to be inspired by pro-German sympathies, let me add that I have been "pro-Ally" since the beginning of the war, and still am, as any acquaintance of mine can testify. But I think that the Allies' case would not be weakened (a) if its public advocates would hold fast to their tempers and to their logical faculties, nor (b) if they would criticise the acts of the Allies and the Germans on an equal basis. Thus (a) the *Nation's* historical "parallel" to the Cavell case proves, on the most casual examination, to be no parallel at all; and (b) while the *Nation* cannot find words to denounce the shooting of an Englishwoman by Germans, it does not think it worth while to mention the shooting of a German woman by French—for substantially identical reasons.

FRANKLIN EDGERTON.

Philadelphia, November 2.

[Our correspondent places the case of Miss Cavell throughout on a par with that of a spy, whereas the essential reason both for the interposition of our Minister and for the world's indignation at the brutal disregard of that interposition lay in the fact that she was not a spy. Had she been a spy, it may be presumed that the military authorities would have seen no reason for rushing her execution in the dead of night a few hours after her sentence had been pronounced and without informing our representative that she had been sentenced.

Another point well deserves attention at the hands of those who find fault with the fierce condemnation passed upon Germany by neutral countries for this act, when no such outcry has been raised over executions of spies in England or France. These fault-finders seem to forget that nobody inquired whether in the course of fifteen months of war Germany has not executed an untold number of spies—and whether among these there was not a woman—and that it was not until she committed this barbarous act against a woman who was not a spy that she was made to suffer the reprobation of the world. If Germany wishes to receive no harsher censure than her enemies, let those who govern her policy draw the line of deliberate and ferocious inhumanity some-

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where near the point where the other nations of the world draw it.—Ed. The Nation.]

"LES ECRIVAINS FRANCAIS PENDANT LA GUERRE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Madame Fernand Baldensperger has so many friends in America that it may seem superfluous to call attention to the deeply interesting series of books, "Les Ecrivains Français Pendant la Guerre," of which she has general direction. The purpose of this series is to bring together in compact volumes writings, originally occasional and often scattered, in which some of the more eminent living French men of letters have recorded, from day to day, the facts and the meaning of times already among the noblest in spiritual history. The first volume, of some hundred and fifty pages, contains a selection from the articles published between September and March by Maurice Barrès. The next volume will similarly collect writings by Emile Boutroux; the third, writings by Ernest Lavisse. And other volumes will follow. Nothing could more instantly or more deeply appeal to those who care for France.

Barrett Wendell.

Boston, November 4.

IN BELGIUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The press dispatches bring us this morning the particulars of the attempt made by Minister Whitlock and Mr. Gibson to procure some mitigation of the sentence passed by the German officials in Brussels upon Miss Edith Cavell—with the details as to the manner of the carrying out of which sentence we were already too familiar. In another column a telegram from Tiflis estimates that of the million and a quarter of non-combatant Armenian inhabitants of Turkey existing at the outbreak of the war, but two hundred thousand are now alive. In still another column the *Echo de Belge* prints the announcement of the German authorities that, in the event of the bombardment by the Allied aeroplane service of a German military barracks in Belgium, "German soldiers will be quartered in civilian homes and the community where the attack occurs fined in proportion to the damage sustained"—Germany having already given the Belgian people a sample of her methods in the fine levied upon Brussels in July for the destruction by British aeroplanes of a Zeppelin dirigible in the military sheds at Evere.

The question arises once more in all its poignancy as to the responsibility of the nations who are not themselves involved in the war for the existence and the continuance of this régime. In the face of this wholesale and deliberate inhumanity, which depraves alike those who have initiated it and those under whose unprotesting eyes it is persistently carried on, any feeling of complacency over the peace which we enjoy at this Thanksgiving season would seem to be misplaced. What is happening every hour in Europe, while we prepare to feast and praise, is that alike the material and the moral achievements of mankind are being flung into the dust heap by the most pitiless and the most perfidious despotism this earth has ever known.

William Higgs.

Gilroy, Cal., October 22.

THE SEAMAN'S ACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of October 21 you cite the fact of the Matson Company embarking on the building of a large steamer as proof of the fact that the blighting influence of the Seaman's Act was not so bad as painted, but you overlook the fact that this vessel is for a protected trade, viz., that with Honolulu, which is secure against the competition of foreigners. This instance, therefore, proves nothing, and the fact remains that to-day we have no American tonnage plying across the Pacific to the Orient, and are not likely to have, with the result that business is very much hampered and out of gear. Mr. McAdoo, when here lately, informed us that there was nothing in the Seaman's Act to circumscribe the activities of American tonnage, which shows a strange state of mind. The trouble is, marine matters are being dealt with by landsmen who are absolutely unqualified to deal with laws under which other nations have thriven and grown great. It is the one black mark against the Wilson Administration in these parts.

The new law actually goes to the extent of practically requiring the doubling of crews and lifeboat equipment on the tugs plying on our ocean bar, changing conditions that have obtained from time immemorial!

W. J. B.

Portland, Ore., October 27.

THE LIABILITY OF CORPORATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his letter dated September 10, published in the *Nation* of October 28, Mr. Bagby assigns as the chief cause of the Eastland calamity legislation limiting the liability of shipowners to the value of the vessel plus pending freight, and argues for a wider rule that would enable recovery to be had even to the full extent of the owner's assets, as in the case of land carriers. Unfortunately, a practical consideration stands in the way, except the shipowner be a natural person as distinguished from a corporation; for it is possible so to disintegrate the assets of any maritime company that each unit may be held by a single corporation, substantially all of whose stock would be in the hands of one holding company. With each individual company acting as operator, in effect, the legislative rule will control. Owners of tenement property have for some years, in order to avoid sweeping liability for claims for negligence, incorporated on the lines of one house a company. One accident might wipe out the equity in a single house, but would leave the other assets of the landlord unimpaired—and so the shipowner, taking a leaf from the accident insurance companies and tenement-house owners, will escape all liability except that which the damage-faisant property may incur. No, you will have to cut somewhat deeper into the corporate crust to get anything of substance.

B. T.

New York, November 3.

THE RECOGNITION OF CARRANZA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The recognition of Carranza by the Administration may be taken as a masterstroke of enlightened foreign policy, or as an ungraceful backdown from lofty and unaccomplished ideals, according to the temperament of the spectator, but the cold facts remain the same in either case.

Carranza is recognized as the Jefe of Mexico, not as the result of an "orderly, legal election participated in by the whole people," but because he has proved himself in a military sense the strongest of a number of insurrectionist leaders. The same violence, bloodshed, and negation of legal rights characterized his campaign as have characterized most Presidential successions in that unhappy country. He waded through slaughter to a throne—and we have recognized him for that reason, after proclaiming that we should do nothing of the sort. Unofficially and tacitly we have acknowledged that orderly constitutional government in Mexico is an impossibility.

Yet it must be admitted that the Administration has displayed no unseemly haste in the matter. The funeral baked meats of Mr. Bryan's régime have been allowed a decent period to cool.

The difference in the achievements of Carranza and Huerta being not easily comprehended, the uninstructed man in the street will inquire—and the future historian will probably ask the same question—why, if we must accept military success as a criterion, did we not recognize Huerta in the beginning of the rebellion and save our national self-respect and thousands of Mexican lives and millions of Mexican property?

E. L. C. Morse.

Chicago, October 25.

Literature

A PERSONAL BIOGRAPHY OF HAY.

The Life and Letters of John Hay. By William Roscoe Thayer. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $5 net.

Mr. Thayer warns in his preface that this is a personal biography of Hay, not a political history. For the latter, even as it merely concerns Hay's public career, the time has not come. Secrets are still locked in official archives. Documents have still to be read in confidence. To the biographer of Cavour, this limitation must have been somewhat irksome. He would have wished to make each hidden record yield its evidence. And the fact that he could not go to the bottom may have inclined him to be a little careless, now and then, about what is to be found on the surface. One example of this is in his account of the stealing of the Panama Canal Zone. Hay was not responsible for this, except as he acquiesced in the crime, after it was committed, and defended it. But it is necessarily an episode in his official life. Mr. Thayer endeavors to treat it dispassionately, but he falls into a serious mistake. Referring to the famous order to prevent the landing of Colombian troops "at any point within fifty miles of Panama," he remarks: "Such orders were by no means novel; similar ones had been issued during many previous upheavals." This is a discovery of Mr. Thayer's own. Senator Spooner would have given much

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to know of it. He was put up to defend President Roosevelt in the Senate, but admitted that the fifty-mile order was indefensible, as being both illegal and without precedent. Mr. Thayer confuses a simple order to keep open the traffic across the Isthmus—as we had a right to do under treaty—with the unheard-of order to prevent the Colombian Government from exercising jurisdiction over its own territory. The effect was, as Mr. Roosevelt elegantly puts it in a letter to Mr. Thayer, here printed, "to prevent the bandits . . . from spending months of futile bloodshed in conquering or endeavoring to conquer the Isthmus."

We hasten to add that there is no other slip like this in Mr. Thayer's pages. Occasional minor errors are met with, besides those obviously due to the proof-reader; and some of the political comments seem to lack both due proportion and sureness of touch; but, on the whole, the work merits praise. It is highly readable. John Hay's personality is brought out most engagingly. To make sure that the impression of it is uncolored, Hay's letters and diaries are allowed to speak for themselves. Mr. Thayer's chief material lay in the volumes which Mrs. Hay caused to be privately printed. To one who had the reading of them much here seems familiar. But it will bear re-reading. And by no other means could the true John Hay have been put before us in habit as he lived.

Particularly welcome is the account of John Hay's early life. We see his precocious talent, which led his friends to believe that he would go far. At Brown he impressed his fellows and his teachers as of superior clay. His class poem was very nearly a sensation. The letters and other writings of his which date from those days suffer from being consciously "fine," but he soon acquired a style at once more facile and more witty. He was still young when he began to display that note of character which Mr. Thayer describes as "shy fastidiousness"; and soon in evidence also was a tendency to fits of melancholy, which persisted to the end of his days. It was a sheer gift of fortune which made John Hay secretary to Abraham Lincoln, but he used it so well as not to discourage fate from showering other opportunities upon him. "I really believe," wrote Hay in 1902 to his brother-in-law, "that in all history I never read of a man who has had so much and such varied success as I have had, with so little ability and so little power of sustained industry." That was not feigned modesty. It was a piece of self-analysis. And it had much truth in it. But if Hay was not a man of first-rate mind, he had varied powers ever at command, and a charm of manner and a gayety of wit which knit for him admiration and many warm friendships. It is, after all, John Hay the man of letters, the lover of art, the humorist, that stands out in these volumes more than John Hay the statesman.

Upon his Civil War diaries Hay drew freely for the Life of Lincoln, which he wrote in collaboration with Nicolay, and of which the genesis and slow execution are set before us by Mr. Thayer. A few stories were left over, with many shrewd characterizations of men and things. It was in a later diary, the one which he kept in Paris, that Hay wrote: "Col. Ritchie informed us to-day of Sumner's engagement to Mrs. Sturgis Hooper. He wrote a letter to Mrs. Adams announcing his engagement, but did not even mention the lady's name. This is eminently characteristic. The great point with Sumner is that *he* is to be married. If the lady happens to get married about the same time, all the better for her. But this is quite a secondary consideration." There could hardly be a neater way of bringing out a foible in the man of whom Howells has said that Sumner's egotism was so great as to be a standing affront. Hay saw Motley in London, shortly after the latter had been recalled from Vienna. "I shall never have any more doubt as to the long-mooted question whether it hurts a man to cut off his head. It hurts like the devil." For a literary reference, take this about Henry James, written in 1882: "The worst thing in our time about American taste is the way it treats James. . . . If he lived in Cambridge he could write what he likes, but because he finds London more agreeable, he is the prey of all the patriotisms. Of all vices I hold patriotism the worst when it meddles with matters of taste." Many other things as good or better the reader will find in Hay's diaries and in his letters to Henry Adams, with whom his close friendship was one of the passions of his life.

What was Hay's attitude towards the political movements of his day? This is a large and difficult question. It visibly troubles Mr. Thayer. He is under no compulsion to make out Hay a hero, but he seems at times to labor under the fear lest an impartial recital of all the facts may make out Hay a good deal less than a hero. At all events, he conceals nothing, even if he seeks to explain away much. He does not deny that Hay became a very intense Republican of the Mark Hanna school, with a strong belief in the autocratic rights of property. And if the later John Hay was ever generous to a political opponent, he failed to leave a record of it. The nearest thing to it in these volumes is this remark about Bayard in London in 1894: "How our Ambassador does go it when he gets a big roomful of bovine Britons in front of him. He knocks them all silly. I never so clearly appreciated the power of the unhesitating orotundity of the Yankee speech as in listening—after an hour or two of hum-ha of tongue-tied British men—to the long wash of our Ambassador's sonority." But of all other Democrats Hay thought exceedingly ill. He voted for Tilden as Governor in 1874, but that effort seems to have dried up his milk of Democratic kindness. He saw nothing in Grover Cleveland. Of other Democratic leaders he wrote with a cynical and corrosive pen.

If this method were to be retorted upon Hay himself, a sorry showing could be made. It could be said that he tried the literary life and journalism and reform until he found that it did not pay, and then gave it up. After marrying a fortune, he sedulously attached himself to the rich wing of the Republican party, became a regular and heavy campaign contributor, and expected and got his reward. He was one of those who paid off McKinley's debts, and McKinley promptly made him Ambassador to England. And it could be alleged that if Hay was very deferential to money, he fairly prostrated himself before power. He had no illusions about his men. He made rather a joke of McKinley until he discovered that in him was a potential President and a dispenser of offices. His first opinion of Roosevelt was altogether the Mark Hanna view—partly amused contempt, partly apprehension as in regard to a trouble-maker. But once Roosevelt had a secure grasp on power, no one was more abject at his feet than John Hay. As Secretary of State under McKinley he had written of the "imbecility" of those who wished to fortify the Panama Canal. But as Secretary of State under Roosevelt he speedily recanted. No Republican President could be imbecile—especially if he kept John Hay in office.

Still further might go the pen dipped in gall like that which Hay used against his political enemies. It could point to the anomaly of a man who, though as editor of the *Tribune* he was famous for his invective directed against public men, when himself a public man could only speak of "filthy newspaper abuse." It could dwell upon his pretty talent for flattery, which he used so unblushingly whenever it furthered his own purposes. It could point out moral inconsistencies, as when he denounced "the dirty politicians" in private, but was willing to take what they had to give him in public; when he railed at the Congressional spoils-seekers who thronged his door in the search for Consulates, yet saw to it that his own son was appointed Consul. And from his relations with Whitelaw Reid the envenomed commentator might infer that Hay knew how not only to profit by his friends, but to throw them over.

All this would be grossly unfair—as unfair as John Hay was in writing of Democrats. A complex nature like his cannot be nicely pigeon-holed. His motives were not so simple as he perhaps thought them. We have, indeed, this early and self-revealing record of his: "I am not suited for a reformer. I do not like to meddle with moral ills. I love comfortable people." It is along something of this line that Hay's public career is to be explained. If he was not delicately scrupulous about the means of getting his abilities an opportunity, he used them so as sincerely to do some service to the state. His Ambassadorship in London was too brief to show fully what he might have made of it. What he did do was useful, though it seems to us to be over-praised by Mr. Thayer. But of his long term in the Department of State, all of us can think with honest pride. He was by no means

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a perfect Secretary. In the matter of organization he was weak. A born executive like Mr. Root found much to clean up when he succeeded Hay. And Hay was too thin-skinned to bear up well under the slings and arrows of criticism and opposition. He did not suffer Senatorial fools gladly. He offered to resign, in a good deal of a pet, when the first Hay-Pauncefote treaty was rejected by the Senate. But in the great things of the Department he displayed a flexibility and a grasp which delighted his friends and surprised those who did not know him. He fairly earned his place among our greater Secretaries of State.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Glorious Rascal. By Justin Huntly McCarthy. New York: John Lane Co.

Mr. McCarthy here constructs a conventional romance of mediæval Paris around the person of the youth Villon. The story closes with the death of Sermois. The clumsy street brawl of 1455 becomes a fairly fought duel, brought about under circumstances that would afford a spirited final curtain for dramatization. The royal pardon which actually followed the homicide and the biographically blank three years which preceded it, invite the romancer's counterfeit conjecture that the death of Sermois was a timely service to persons of high degree. But the hero, in his idealistic attachment to the wife of the Provost of Paris and daughter of the ex-Provost, has more the tone of a Dante than of a Villon. Even his student pranks and dissipations are matter of spiritual struggle. The author long since showed himself fluently practiced in the cloak and sword conventions. In this unbelievably rehabilitated Villon he has not improved on his earlier portrait in "If I Were King."

The Insulted and Injured. By Fyodor Dostoevsky. Translated by Constance Garnett. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Russian Silhouettes. By Anton Tchekoff. Translated by Marian Fell. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

To the extent that Dostoievsky can be imagined as approaching the commonplace he does so in what is at the same time the shortest and the least distinguished of the novels that have so far appeared in the admirable Garnett translation. Here there is melodramatic plot of a kind that is absent from his earlier tales, and which, taken in conjunction with the gray atmosphere of the St. Petersburg slum, strongly suggests Dickens of the sombre parts of "Bleak House" or "Our Mutual Friend." These very qualities of brevity, sustained plot interest, a minimum of the Dostoievsky horror, and a less exasperating subtlety of character and motive analysis, should make "The Injured and Possessed" the most suitable of all his novels for the beginner, who nevertheless will find enough of the peculiar quality of the greater works to carry him forward. The story has the characteristic Dostoievsky setting of poverty and chill winter and sickness of body and soul, the characteristic movement in the form of almost interminable and almost endlessly repeated conversations, interrupted by poignant bits of tragic action. It has the characteristic Dostoievsky hero in the person of a youth who loves two women in alternate half hours, and continues doing so without subsidence or climax to the end of the book. In this feature lies the very serious weakness of an undeniably great writer. Dostoievsky's enigmatic men and women frequently do not pass through a psychological evolution, but simply keep on changing their minds back and forth, with somewhat of the effect produced by the red and white revolving pole of the modern barber shop. Such is the fickle Alyosha of the present story, to whom Dostoievsky by formula opposes the constant Natasha; always you find steadfastness and gentleness sacrificing itself to selfishness and psychic instability. But in spite of these traits the book does come nearest to our own standards in fiction. We have spoken of Dickens. A scene like the death of Nellie in Dostoievsky's story is very close to the tradition of "The Old Curiosity Shop."

Bracketing Anton Tchekoff with Dostoievsky at the head of the same book review is justified by something more than the accident of publication dates. Tchekoff has eminent merits of his own, but when one takes up this latest volume of his short tales after going through a volume of Dostoievsky, the thought occurs that Tchekoff has a very distinct use to the foreigner as a corrective, we may say almost an antidote, to other Russian writers. For one thing, Tchekoff is a humorist, second only to Gogol in Russian literature. Laughter is not merely a welcome relief in the sad pages of the Russian novelists just now in vogue among us, but is absolutely essential to a proper view of Russian life; for, after all, people do laugh in Russia. We might have known as much when we used to read Tolstoy and Turgenieff, but now that Russian literature is synonymous with the gloom of Dostoievsky and the morbidities of Artzibasheff, it is well to recall that there is at least one Russian who, knowing life far more intimately than Artzibasheff, and knowing it in its tragic aspects, has nevertheless seen another side. That the Czar's empire is not altogether peopled with victims of poverty and oppression, with half-mad intellectuals and eroticists, with the human dregs of Gorky's Abyss, will be made manifest in the present collection of stories of child life, of adolescence, and of the vagaries of adult character which are not always depressing. We imagine that to many it will come with a shock of surprise to learn that in Russia there are schoolboys who run away from home to fight Indians in quite the normal fashion, having first selected for themselves appropriate appellations like Montezuma Hawkeye and Paleface Brother. Tchekoff would not be a Russian if even in his most extravagant moods there did not appear that immediate sense of reality which is the hallmark of the national literature. It is instructive to compare the unforced humor of child life as Tchekoff sees it, in this charming volume, with the artifices of our own juvenile humor at its contemporary best, as we have it, for instance, in Booth Tarkington's "Penrod." With us the type has apparently been fixed once for all by Huck Finn. A just appreciation of Russian literature calls for a bit of Tchekoff with Dostoievsky, with Gorky, Andreieff, Artzibasheff, who, after all, are representative of only one phase of the Slav soul.

MILITARY REFORM.

The American Army. By William Harding Carter, Major-General, United States Army. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co. $1.50.

The casual reader who takes up this book in the hope of finding some account of the Regular Establishment will suffer a momentary disappointment. Gen. Carter's outlook is far broader than a narrow definition of his title would imply. And yet he might very well have written of the Regular Army alone, whose achievements, in both peace and war, would in any other country but ours be a subject of national pride. To the vast majority of Americans these achievements are unknown; it is questionable, given the indifference of our people, if any good purpose could be served by dwelling on them. Be this as it may, Gen. Carter's purpose is wholly different. Under the title chosen by him, he assembles and considers all the elements, regular, militia, or volunteer, that in time of stress would constitute the American army. By that we do not mean that he assumes a national stress as his major premise; on the contrary, he investigates the relations to one another of these elements under normal conditions, and, most important of all, their relations actual or possible to the central authority. Nor is his survey limited to the present day; since the army, or better put the military, question is necessarily an evolution, his exposition involves a discussion of our military policy. In short, as might have been expected from his known studious and scholarly character, from his experience, administrative and executive, and from his researches into our military history, Gen. Carter has given the country a calm and philosophic discussion of the military question as it presents itself to the contemplation of serious inquirers after the truth.

We cannot here name all the subjects covered by this discussion; so to do would be merely to reproduce the table of contents. We must content ourselves with saying that no considerable subject relating to organization has been left untouched, whether pensions, schools, volunteers, the organized militia, reserves. In respect of form, the vol-

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ume consists essentially of a series of independent investigations, each complete in itself, save that the great subject of forces outside of the permanent establishment appears and reappears during the course of the argument.

Not so much as a trace of militaristic spirit is to be found in the pages of this volume. Under this head, Gen. Carter's reasoning should make a special appeal to pacifists, to whose earnest consideration we recommend it. For the author does not advocate a great standing army, an army of numbers; indeed, his moderation in this respect is remarkable. But he does point out the fundamental defects in the laws under which troops must be raised if needed, and suggests remedies. These lie mediately with Congress; hence, ultimately, it is the people who must decide: a sufficient answer to any who may see in this book a militaristic tendency.

Gen. Carter makes certain recommendations for the betterment of military affairs in our country, such as the formation of regimental depots; the establishment of an expeditionary force completely organized with its staff and supply system, and the creation of colonial troops for service beyond the seas. He would send enlisted candidates for commissions to West Point, and has the courage to recommend a radical reform in the matter of the appointment of officers from civil life. Although some of these recommendations would call for Congressional sanction, yet they may be regarded as municipal in character, as falling within the domain of the interior administration of the army. It is far otherwise with the great question of militia and volunteers, national in its scope, constitutional in its affections, and vital in its possible results. Unless some change is made in the system, then, in the words of the author, "we are drifting to certain disappointment." For example, under the act of May 27, 1908:

> When the military needs of the Federal Government, arising from the necessity to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrection, or repel invasion, cannot be met by the regular forces, the organized militia shall be called into the service of the United States, *in advance* [author's italics] *of any volunteer forces which it may be determined to raise.*

This act was modified by the statute of April 25, 1914:

> to the extent that after the organized land militia *of any arm or class* shall have been called into the military service of the United States, volunteers *of that particular arm or class* may be raised and accepted into service, in accordance with the terms of the act, regardless of the extent to which other arms or classes of militia shall have been called into service. It should be borne in mind that for any military operations beyond our borders the militia cannot be called into service, but must volunteer, so that until the members of each organization decide whether or not three-fourths of the minimum prescribed as the strength of the particular unit will volunteer, the President is debarred from calling for volunteers of similar arms or classes. *All this* [italics ours], *be it observed, is to take place after war is upon the nation.*

How did this muddle come about? Gen. Carter tells us:

> This status of legislation has resulted from the active efforts of the association of officers representing the interests of the National Guard, who have held the opinion that the organization of volunteer regiments for national purposes would, in time of peace, react unfavorably upon the organized militia.

This numbers, be it added, a little over 100,000 in a population of nearly 100,000,000. A by-product of the laws under remark, is that "the trained and proved officers of active military service . . . must needs be employed under generals appointed by Governors of States in time of peace, and for reasons which perhaps would not have been effective had the Governors recognized that the peace appointments would carry actual command in war." Let us pray for peace, not merely because peace is sweet and right, but also because war would find us with our hands self-tied behind own own backs!

Gen. Carter proposes a remedy, the creation of Federal Volunteers, that commends itself to the attention of those responsible for the destinies of the nation, and even more to the body of our citizens, whose opinions and desires in the long run determine our national policies. For there can be no doubt that the people, whether rightly or wrongly, are taking note of our national defence as never before; to them, and to their representatives in authority, Gen. Carter's book should prove a source of wise suggestion and of useful action.

THE PROBLEM OF TRUSTS.

Trusts and Competition. By John F. Crowell. The National Social Science Series. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 50 cents.

The Prevention and Control of Monopolies. By W. Jethro Brown. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.25.

Darling on Trusts. By Joseph R. Darling. New York: The Neale Publishing Co.

The "Trust" problem is really very simple in principle. All we want is that to every man shall be given under "fair competition" the "opportunity" that he ought to have and to every company, big or little, the opportunity that *it* ought to have by means of "coöperative efficiency," provided that it pays to labor the wages labor ought to have, buys its materials from producers at "fair" prices, returns "fair" profits to its stockholders, and sells its products at "fair" prices to the consumer. We are all agreed—except the Socialists—that all these things should be accomplished by legislation or regulation, or both, and some of us hope that such accomplishment is feasible. If there be in these days any so poor as to do reverence at the dilapidated shrine of the "Manchester School," they are not, it would seem, writing books or making laws.

It is admitted by most that government must develop a new function—that of "administration." Dr. Crowell in his excellent little handbook says:

> This extension of public powers is differently interpreted. To some it means incapacity in self-governing industry. But the more scientific view is the truer—that it is only a division of labor, in which government, whose business it is to decide controversies, extends its services over into the field of free enterprise. This is not because its decisions are more nearly ideally just; but, as the cricket umpire explained to the novice, that some sort of a decision may be rendered promptly "so that the game may go on." This is why government by commission has come to play so large a rôle in the complex conditions of modern trade and industry. Where one sort of umpiring proves unequal to the task it is set aside for another. Commissions will be needed until the administrative arm of government, as contrasted with the other three divisions, comes to stand on an equality with them. Then we may have the four cornerstones of a complete system of governmental control in the executive, the judiciary, the legislative, and the administrative (pp. 166, 167).

Mr. W. Jethro Brown comes to much the same conclusion when, speaking of the Anti-Trust acts of Australia, he says:

> To leave the ordinary courts to work out by themselves a definition of what is fair and what is unfair competition or to determine when a monopoly is or is not repressive, or to declare what is or is not to the detriment of the public is to impose upon a purely judicial tribunal the necessity of adjudicating upon issues of which the determination more properly belongs to some body especially created for the purpose of dealing with such subjects. . . . A satisfactory administration of anti-Trust legislation involves powers of negotiation with business concerns, powers of mere investigation, powers of calling upon a Trust to revise its scheme of prices, powers of making specific recommendations to the Legislature, and powers of dissolving a repressive monopoly under conditions which shall adequately secure the purposes which the Legislature has in view. These powers should be exercised by a special administrative body capable of giving a judicial decision as a court of first instance, but also capable of acting in more direct and expeditious ways where the circumstances of the case admit of this being done consistently with the attainment of the purposes which the Legislature has in view (pp. 91, 92).

Both Dr. Crowell and Mr. Brown believe in regulation by commission as a remedy for "unfair" competition and a preventive of monopolization. Dr. Crowell does not think much of "publicity"; Mr. Brown considers it useful within certain limits (chap. v). Neither believes in "limitation of size" for corporations apart from the question of monopoly. Neither believes in nationalization in a general way; but Mr. Brown distinguishes certain kinds of enterprise as suited more or less for that kind of control. Dr. Crowell nowhere discusses the fixing of prices by the state; Mr. Brown believes that such control of prices is possible and desirable in the case of monopolies as the only alternative to nationalization.

The conclusion that one reaches from the

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arguments contained in both these books is that experimentation in governmental control through publicity, regulation by commission, and fixing of prices will very probably result in some ultimate improvement of trade conditions from a social point of view, but that up to the present time no one has a very clear idea of how things will work. There is almost as much ground for hoping that the improvement will come from the tacit adoption of a gradually higher standard of morals by "business" itself—especially "big business"'—as there is for hoping for it from the superior wisdom and purer intentions of those entrusted with the administrative powers. Railway history of the last twenty years seems to warrant this statement.

The chief value of Mr. Darling's book is its summary of facts with regard to the principal cases decided under the Sherman Anti-Trust law.

LITERARY CRITICISM.

Critical Essays of the Eighteenth Century, 1700-1725. Edited by Willard Higley Durham. New Haven: Yale University Press. $1.75 net.

Excluding, for practical reasons, Shaftesbury and all Shakespearean critics, the editor "aims to present . . . the more significant criticism published between 1700 and 1725." Later he hopes to cover the second quarter of the century and "to offer as a separate study a history of the development of literary criticism and popular taste in the eighteenth century." Judgment of the present volume, therefore, is only judgment of the first instalment upon a project of very considerable scope.

His editorial apparatus Dr. Durham has intentionally made brief in order to permit the inclusion of more text. Notes and bibliography are slight, and the introduction "aims merely to suggest certain points of view from which the texts may well be read." There is, nevertheless, a great deal in this introduction which makes one look forward eagerly to the promised critical history of the eighteenth century. It is unusually brisk and pointed: "there is nothing half-hearted or undecided" about it, as the editor himself remarks of Allan Ramsay's preface to "The Ever Green." One may well object that many assertions are not proved and that a straw man who knows nothing whatever about the eighteenth century is rather needlessly knocked about. But one cannot help liking very much the vigor with which the reasonableness of the moderate classicist is set forth and the good sense of the final comments upon the two tendencies which have been made so falsely clear and separate in many textbooks:

> If, then, we use the words "classic" and "romantic" merely as convenient terms for two fundamental tendencies in the human mind, they are serviceable. If for more, they are misleading. For the two classes of men exist always side by side; the two tendencies exist in the same men. . . . So in the England of this period what we have called the classic tendency—the monistic, the simplifying—was dominant. But men were still conscious of the other point of view; some of them were trying to make their own broad enough to include it. But their basic attitude remained." (Pages xlii-xliii.)

This seems to us good doctrine, and we hope it may help both to discredit that caricature of eighteenth-century classicism so frequent in misguided attempts to "simplify" the period for beginners, and to moderate the glee of those who may chance to flush from the classic coverts a few stray "beginners of romanticism."

As for the texts themselves, one regrets that Dennis and Gildon, who together make up half of the book, could not have been crowded a bit to make room for some of Bysshe and St. Evremond, a little of Swift, and more of Addison. The text, if one may judge after comparing a dozen pages of Gildon with the original edition, seems to be faithfully reproduced.

Notes

Beckles Willson's "Life of Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal" is announced for publication this month by Houghton Mifflin Co.

"Costumes and Scenery for Amateurs," by Constance D'Arcy Mackay, will be published by Henry Holt & Co. on November 13.

"Psychology of the Unconscious," by C. G. Jung, will be published shortly by Moffat, Yard & Co.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, announces the publication of R. W. Frazer's "Indian Thought: Past and Present."

"Our American Wonderlands," by George Wharton James, is announced for immediate publication by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

George Van Schaick's "The Son of the Otter" is announced for early publication by Small, Maynard & Co.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce the forthcoming publication of the following volumes: "Fate and Free-Will," by A. S. Wadia; "British Coal Trade," by H. Stanley Jevons; "Dictionary of Universal Biography," by Albert M. Hyamson.

"The Catalogue de Luxe of the Department of Fine Arts of the Panama-Pacific International Exposition," edited by John E. D. Trask and J. Nilsen Laurvik, will be published early in December by Paul Elder & Co., San Francisco. The same house announces for early publication "The Fourth Dimensional Reaches of the Panama-Pacific International Exposition," by Cora Lenore Williams.

Houghton Mifflin publishes at fifty cents net the volume a Riverside Uplift series, containing thus far the following titles: "Why I Believe in Poverty," by Edward W. Bok; "The Cultivated Man," by Charles W. Eliot; "The Amateur Spirit," by Bliss Perry; "The Glory of the Imperfect," "Self-Cultivation in English," and "Trades and Professions," these three by George Herbert Palmer, and "Whither?" These little reprints are attractively published, with the double aim, no doubt, of providing inexpensive readable texts and suitable ornaments for parlor tables.

At first sight, it seems hardly fair to the late Dr. Alexander Young to republish his book, "A Short History of the Netherlands," first issued in 1886, and now reprinted under the title "A Short History of Belgium and Holland," without corrections, revision, and continuation to date. This Boston lawyer, one of the first editors of the *Globe*, of that city, was a scholarly writer and student of the history of the Low Countries. There are no strong indications that he was familiar with the Dutch language, or with that rich body of historical writing which our own Motley may be said to have provoked into creditable being. Since, however, the renascence of learning and art in Belgium, following upon the establishment of national sovereignty and independence, in 1830, both Fleming and Walloon archivists and historians, vieing with each other in generous rivalry, have produced a very respectable body of historical and antiquarian literature in the French language. Of this Dr. Young made discriminating use, so far, indeed, as to modify notably some of Motley's conclusions, while at many points furnishing correctives to the American author's virtuous partisanship. Motley was a rich colorist rather than an exact draughtsman. Indeed, there are parts of his work, as, for example, in "John of Barneveldt," which can hardly be accepted as history. Without the brilliancy and dash of his fellow townsman, Dr. Young produced one of the most trustworthy general histories of the Netherlands extant in English. Especially in the notes is this book illuminating, though the text also shows much independent research. Yet the narrative virtually ends with the opening of the nineteenth century, and the last chapter, though announced in the publisher's note as "partially re-written and brought up to date," must be accepted as the work of an amateur who is not overburdened with knowledge of his subject. It is thoroughly unsatisfactory. A really good summary of the history of the two kingdoms to A. D. 1913 is a desideratum. Yet besides being copiously illustrated and well printed, though lacking an index, this work is worthy of a place in our libraries as giving an excellent view of the evolution of the Netherlands as a unit, before their separation into two countries. (London: T. Fisher Unwin: 5 shillings net.)

Sir Gilbert Murray's Conway Memorial Lecture on "The Stoic Philosophy" (Putnam; 75 cents) is, like all his work, clever, scholarly, and interesting; but it does not get very deep into the real difficulties of the subject. "Goodness," said the Stoic, "is the only thing of significance, the only thing worth living for"; and Professor Murray, like the contemporaries of Zeno, asks the inevitable question: "But what is goodness?" and then answers his own question with the modern equivalent of the ancient Stoics:

> Let us in the meantime accept this conception of a force very like that which most of us assume when we speak of evolution; especially, perhaps, it is like what Bergson calls *La Vie* or *L'Elan Vital* at the back of *L'Evolution Créatrice*, though to the Greeks it

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seemed still more personal and vivid; a force which is present in all the live world, and is always making things grow towards the fulfilment of their utmost capacity. We see now what goodness is; it is living or acting according to Phusis [nature], working with Phusis in her eternal effort towards perfection.

But what, we ask, is this perfection? It is goodness. And what, again, is goodness? It is working towards perfection. No Stoic ever worked his way out of this circle; and it is not very creditable to a modern scholar that he thinks such a juggling of words an escape from the real difficulties. And there are other dilemmas in the little book of the author's own making—the dilemmas of one who for long years has lapped himself in a sentimental optimism and now is suddenly and harshly shocked out of his ease by the sound of the Prussian guns.

In the Mount Vernon estate Washington held, divided among five farms, 3,250 arable acres in a total of 8,000. He balanced his gain for 1798, not a good year, at £898 16s. 4¼d. Land, improvements, stock, and slaves together are valued for that year by Paul Leland Haworth in his "George Washington, Farmer" (Bobbs-Merrill; $1.50), at $200,000. The return, two and one-quarter per cent., is more, he observes, "than has ever been got out of it (the Mount Vernon land) by any other person." That Washington made a success of his farming, a proposition the author is at pains to defend, is not supported solely on the more or less conjectural financial showing. More important returns which he drew from the land are to be found in the habits he developed of investigation and experiment; in the attempt he made to apply and adapt the scientific temper displayed at the time in Europe by men like Arthur Young, Sir John Sinclair, Duhamel du Monceau. If he was not in advance of what we should now call the scientific farming of his day, he typified the recognition, destined to characterize the agricultural history of his country, that in all husbandry exact knowledge must take precedence over tradition, however venerable.

Brought up in the "rich middle West," the author laments the unproductive character of Washington's much eroded soil. Not holding with the novel excretory theory of soil fertility, he considers exhaustion to be due to actual losses in chemical content. As a student of Tull, Washington may have considered it due to loss by mechanical extraction. Under whatever theory he not only saw the disadvantageous effect of a customarily unvaried crop like tobacco, but went so far as to rule out this crop altogether. His production began to fall off rapidly from 89,000 pounds in 1763, while his wheat crop thereupon rose from 257½ bushels in 1764 to 6,241½ in 1769. At the time of the Constitutional Convention he sowed 700 acres to wheat, 580 to grass, 400 to oats, 700 to corn, with lesser amounts of buckwheat, peas, beans, turnips, and potatoes. He planted alfalfa in 1798. He was constantly testing varieties of grain. Yet whatever his crop, there was little of it returned to the land. Though he studied rotation elaborately and experimented industriously with composts, in his interest in stock, except for horses, sheep, and mules, he was more of a naturalist than an agriculturist. One of his pet projects of fertilization was to utilize the Potomac muck. Noah Webster reports that a favorite toast of the household was "Success to the mud!" He tried the effects of deep-soil ploughing by running the furrow twice. For all farm machinery he showed a characteristically American attitude of radical alertness. He installed one of the newly invented threshing machines at the first opportunity. He constructed harrows, ploughs, and a cumbersome drill, in which he shows the most engaging delight. Such a man, writing his last annual message to Congress, could hardly fail to recommend the creation of the Board which ultimately took shape as the Department of Agriculture. In breaking new ground Mr. Haworth will seem, to readers who take the title too strictly to heart, to roam a good deal over old ground. "Washington as a private citizen, with some special account of his farming," might in more precise and spacious days have been the title. A brief, popular book, yet packed with recondite information assiduously compiled from the "Diary" (beginning January, 1785), and other first-hand sources, this book will earn many thanks and some grumbling.

Dr. Peterson, principal and vice-chancellor of McGill University, has brought together in a substantial volume of some 370-odd pages a number of "Canadian Essays and Addresses" (Longmans; $3.50), written or given during the last ten or twelve years. These essays and addresses cover a variety of subjects, but fall naturally enough into two classes: Canada's relations with the rest of the Empire and with the United States; and Education. In the first, Dr. Peterson discusses such questions as the Relations of the English-speaking Peoples, the Future of Canada, Canada and the Empire, Canada and the United States, True Imperialism, and the Naval Policy. In the second, he includes addresses on National Education, the Place of the University in the Commercial City, Claims of Classical Studies in Modern Education, the Unity of Education, Education and Business, and a number of memorial or other special addresses. Dr. Peterson is an Imperialist, but not in the sense in which what he aptly calls the "Little Canadians" are fond of describing the supposed attitude of the imperial federationist. "To me," he says, "imperialism is not militarism, or jingoism, or megalomania, or flag-waving and the beating of big drums, or the enthralment of other peoples by a superior power; in its sane and sober acceptation it is the expression of an aspiration which may be cherished in full sympathy with democratic ideals—the aspiration, namely, and the desire that, for the high and noble purposes of its world-wide mission, the British Empire may be enabled to hold together in all coming time." And again: "The Empire of the future must satisfy democratic aspirations, and rest on the broad basis of a democratic ideal. Even the old mother is coming to understand that it is not a question of sovereignty, but of what will grow to be more and more a free and equal alliance. The ideal is not one of a 'cluster of subordinate units grouped in deferential pose round an imperial centre,' for it is now accepted as axiomatic that no scheme of empire will be tolerated which fails to take account of national status. Self-government is the guarantee of equality in this regard." Dr. Peterson quotes appreciatively Kipling's happy description of British states within the Empire as "democratic republics under the gentle sovereignty of the parent-state."

There is much that may be read with profit in Dr. Peterson's addresses on educational topics, the triumphs and failures of modern education, the influence thereon of present-day conditions, the relations between education and business, and the effect of education upon public life. Speaking of the public school as we know it in the United States and Canada, he says:

Independently altogether of the religious question, we shall have to give more attention in our schools to ethical teaching—to a training in morals and manners, in habits and conduct, especially as regards fair-play and what may be called good form. Few can tell what an influence for the exorcising of the unclean spirit in public life might be wielded by more systematic efforts to develop a love even for clean sport in the school. There is a tendency, in a modern democratic society, to push the demands of equality so far as to endanger the claims of discipline. That should not and need not be. The wise Greeks knew that of all the evils which may afflict a state there can be none greater than what they called *Anomia* or lawlessness. Perhaps what this people needs most at the present time is that some prophet should arise—some latter-day Savonarola—who shall set himself to stem the tide that is setting in the direction of a decline in reverence and respect for authority, and preach the wider freedom that comes from obedience to law.

A few words from Dr. Peterson's tribute to the late Lord Strathcona are worth quoting, if only to take out of one's mouth the bad taste left by Mr. Preston's rather vindictive biography:

Some are asking whether men who have been so fortunate as Lord Strathcona are really entitled to all the wealth that has passed into their possession. I make no judgment upon that, except to say that it is well for the world when great wealth is in the hands of those who have anything like the sense of responsibility that animated him, and anything like the same desire to serve the public interest. And after all he was no mere sordid seeker after gain, nor did his material prosperity ever blunt the edge of his moral and social ideals and aspirations. In a word, his soul was not submerged, as is sometimes unfortunately the case, by the gathering tide of worldly success. Duty was his guiding star—duty and conscience.

Einhard's "libellus aureus" on the life of Charlemagne has been edited primarily "to satisfy the needs of students in this [Oxford] University reading for the 'Previous Examination in Modern History.'" by H. W. Garrod and R. B. Mowat (Clarendon Press). The work should have a wider vogue, as the authors hope, but not in its present form. Most of the notes and the chapter on the limits and administration of the Carolingian Empire are sensible and helpful. The chapter on German culture in the early Middle Ages is so full of guesses and errors that the best way to emend it is, in Ovid's phrase, is "to give it to the emending flames." The whole book needs a careful revision by somebody who has more than an elementary acquaintance with palæography. The statement that at the time when Charlemagne undertook the reform of education, those favored monks "who *could* write, wrote a script almost illegible," is typical. "The illegible script which we call 'Merovingian'" is not a palæographer's definition. Not to mention certain fine varieties of embellished Merovingian cursive, the veriest tiro could read with ease the beautiful Bible written at Corbie in the abbacy of Maurdramnus (772-780), considerably before Charlemagne promulgated his capitularies on education or Alcuin retired to Tours. A special absurdity is the attempt to explain the purity of Einhard's Latin style by the assumption that it is not based on the *lingua mixta*, the dialect inherited from antiquity in Italy, France, and Spain; as Einhard came from Germany, we

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are told, he necessarily cultivated an artificial manner, "drawn with labor from the sources and not fetched from any common conduit of literary tradition." But Einhard spent the best years of his life at the court, where he hardly escaped the *lingua mixta.* His usual residence was doubtless Aix-la-Chapelle, in a district containing Trèves, one of the strongholds of Latin culture since the fourth century; and he hardly would have been sent as an Ambassador to the Pope had he not had a fluent command of spoken Latin. The chapter on German culture in the early Middle Ages would profitably be replaced by a more general treatment of education before and during the Carolingian Renaissance, with the German culture of the period summed up in a page.

While this edition does not pretend to offer an elaborate critical apparatus, it includes a brief account of the manuscripts and cites representative readings of the three main classes. In the story of Charlemagne's disaster near Roncesvalles, the much-discussed passage (IX, 3) that includes Roland among the slain, is rightly retained, although omitted in class B, and could be further defended by the observation that, as A and B are obviously branches of the same class, the coincidence of A and the clearly independent C in giving the passage is good proof of its genuineness. There is no warrant whatsoever for deriving all our manuscripts from three copies written in a German monastery where, as at Fulda, Anglo-Saxon influence was strongly felt. Some copies, as seems to be the case with B, may have had such an origin, but it is next to impossible that Einhard, who was not particularly fond of the Irish at Charlemagne's court, should have published his work in a copy made by an insular scribe; the editors have surely done unwisely in admitting the Anglo-Saxon character ð into their text in the word *Nordmanni.* A very vexing feature of the edition is the numbering of lines in the sections, and not on the entire page; this makes the apparatus extremely difficult to use, while reference from the introduction to the unnumbered lines of a page adds insult to the injury. In short, if this book is to be useful to a wider circle than that for which it is primarily intended, it deserves, for many reasons, a thorough overhauling.

Miss Violet Barbour's "Henry Bennet, Earl of Arlington" (published as the Adams Prize Essay of the American Historical Association) gives an excellent account of England's foreign relations during the earlier part of Charles II's reign. By his devotion to the Stuart cause and by his native shrewdness and ability young Harry Bennet rose steadily in favor until he became Secretary of State in 1662. For a dozen years thereafter he was one of the most influential ministers of his lazy, venal, and capricious master, so influential, in fact, that the French Ambassador described him as Charles II's "other self, for this Minister knows his [the King's] most secret intentions and designs and possesses his confidence, his esteem, and his friendship in the highest degree." Miss Barbour, in pointing out that the shortcomings of the Cabal Ministry have been more cordially recognized than its difficulties, devotes her volume to a discriminating study of the extent of Arlington's responsibility for the Government's measures. Typical of his unscrupulousness was his concealment, even from his own colleagues in the Ministry, of the shameful Secret Treaty of Dover. A few weeks later, however, he went through the farce of negotiating with their coöperation a second sham secret treaty of Dover. The new treaty was identical with the earlier one, except that the clause promising Charles's declaration of Roman Catholicism was omitted, and the French subsidy promised for this was assigned for the conduct of the war. Arlington, however, was no more unscrupulous than his colleague and rival, Buckingham, who, in the very matter of this sham treaty, vehemently denied in public the existence of the treaty which he had signed in private. Through all the tortuous intrigues of Ministers against each other, against Parliament, and against one or other of the foreign Powers, the author carries a clear torch illuminating Arlington's path. When finally the Cabal Ministers were threatened with impeachment by an angry Parliament, Buckingham sought to exculpate himself by attacking Arlington at the bar of the House; he even departed so far from parliamentary usage as to call him a lobster (p. 226). When Arlington in turn appeared before the House, he wisely refrained from any recrimination and spoke with such dignity and skill that the talk of impeachment against him was soon dropped. Miss Barbour writes almost wholly from the sources, using particularly the minute and lengthy dispatches of the French Ambassadors and various manuscript letters in the Carte and Clarendon collections. She is also to be congratulated on her graceful use of English which is quite unlike the arid wastes too often characteristic of doctoral dissertations.

BOOKS ON THE WAR.

On the 25th of September, 1914, Miss May Sinclair set out with a Motor Field Ambulance Corps to serve the Belgian army, her own connection with the party being that of treasurer, secretary, and journal-keeper. From Ostend the corps went to Ghent; from there to Antwerp, while that city was under siege; then back to Ghent, where they remained while the crowds of wounded and refugees were pouring in; at the approach of the Germans they followed the Belgian army to Bruges, Ostend, and Dunkirk, and from Dunkirk Miss Sinclair returned to England. The notes she was able to keep during a considerable part of this adventurous tour were naturally meagre, but from them she has, with the aid of memory, pieced out "A Journal of Impressions in Belgium" (Macmillan; $1.50 net), which has the sharp, sometimes almost hysterical, qualities one would expect from her fiction and biographical writings. Her experiences were got at what might be called the ragged edge of war, and give one that sense of confusion and aimlessness with which we are familiar in the books of those who record perceptions from the outside without being in the counsels of the commanders. But the analysis of her own sensations is often extremely vivid—notably, for example, in the record of what she felt on hearing her first gun (p. 146) and on attending her first wounded man (p. 170). Yet we cannot say that we thoroughly like the book. The personal tone of the whole thing sounds a bit shrill in the midst of a people's agony, and, though the writer was engaged in a noble work, her journal gives the suspicion, unjust it may be, of gloating over horrors.

"The Soul of the War," by Philip Gibbs (McBride; $1.75 net), is a stirring narrative of correspondence and hospital service with the western armies of the Allies. Mr. Gibbs belongs to the tradition of the late George W. Steevens. In the interest of vividness and pathos he leaves no screw unturned and no nerve unwrung. Probably no other correspondent has given so ghastly a picture of the war as a shambles. In the less militant pages, as in the account of stay-at-home Paris, Mr. Gibbs has the grace of a ready sympathy and of a somewhat profuse picturesqueness of style. It is precisely this over-excited quality of much of the writing which, while making the pages quite thrilling, also takes them out of the first class. Originally correspondence to the London *Daily Chronicle,* it is well worth reading in this more permanent form. Nobody has made more vivid the neuroses that grow out of such a war as this. Naturally the writer, appalled by this human wreckage, is something of a pacifist; as naturally overstrain and unrestraint characterize his writing.

George Adam in "Behind the Scenes at the Front" (Duffield & Company; $2 net) has more professional imperturbability, more humor, and a consequently steadier vision. He was Paris correspondent, and his letters are interpretative in a general political sense. The book is excellent of its sort, dealing rather little with states of mind and much with facts and methods. It is correspondence of the classic type as Mr. Gibbs's was impressionistic. For one who wishes to inform himself as to the procedures of a great war —from the antecedent diplomacy to the provisioning in the trenches—the book is of distinct value. Having adventured with the Soul of the War, under Mr. Gibbs's guidance, it will do no one harm to consider also the material body of the war in Mr. Adam's terse and lucid chapters.

The French official report on the German atrocities is now translated by J. O. P. Bland and published by Putnam ($2 net), with the title "Germany's Violations of the Laws of War, 1914-15." Numerous documents, largely German soldiers' diaries, are presented in facsimile. It is difficult to interpret with any composure an array of facts so dreadful. First it must be said that the evidential quality of the exhibit is complete and convincing. These horrors actually happened, and very much as they are recorded. The moral decision as to their import is not quite easy. We do not know how much of this sort of horror is incidental to modern war in masses and unavoidable. We do not know what real or fancied provocation there may have been for the repeated burnings and slayings in French villages. There is the fullest evidence that the Germans in many places, and in obedience to orders, killed the wounded and prisoners. This is a blot on their military history that cannot be effaced. For the rest it appears that they made war as a rather brutal and inadequately civilized folk generally will. There seems to us rather small profit in inventorying their minor outrages. Nobody supposes them a gentle race. Indeed, the value of such an exhibit must be chiefly tactical—to offset in advance any complaint which Germany may make against the severity of the campaign against her.

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Science

Fighting Frost

By DAVID TODD.

The late Prof. Lawrence Rotch, founder of the Blue Hill Meteorological Observatory, which is still maintained from the income of funds of Mrs. Rotch's and his own providing, was an eminently practical scientist, and very resourceful in devising new and useful methods of research that at once established and still maintain this institution in the first rank. Blue Hill is now included within the Metropolitan Reservation, the observatory building on its summit has been thrice enlarged, its technical library is probably the best collection in the United States outside of Washington, and the regular observations, continued since 1885 unchanged in both method and environment, constitute a unique series in American meteorology; indeed, the International Solar Commission has made use of them in its study of secular changes of climate. On the death of the founder, Prof. Alexander McAdie, of San Francisco, was called to the directorship of the Observatory, and in the recently issued volume of observations of the past four years he presents a thoroughly practical and very timely essay on inversions of temperature in relation to frosts, a subject in which he is an acknowledged authority.

Only in recent years have aerologists given much attention to those slow-moving currents of the lower strata of the atmosphere which greatly differ from the whirls and cataracts of both high and low levels familiarly known as the winds. The larger and more energetic streams of air play a part in the formation of frost, and their importance is not to be underestimated; but primarily it is a slow surface flow, almost a creeping, of the air near the ground which controls the temperature, and is all-important in frost formation. It is, therefore, of some importance to study the conditions which bring about this slow movement or displacement of air. It is true that there are times when, with thorough mixing and ventilation, and little opportunity for slow displacement, temperature will fall to low points and damage from frost result; but conditions of this kind are more properly described as cold waves. In such cases there is an unusual loss of heat by direct convection and the translation of masses of cold air. Strictly speaking, frosts are connected with inversions of temperature brought about by vertical movements of the air rather than horizontal, and are, therefore, essentially problems in local air drainage. In the valleys of California a slow but well-defined flow of the surface air can be traced and utilized in forecasting frosts: condensed water vapor or fog can be seen drifting into the valleys or settling in the low places. There are well-marked stream lines, and one is led to believe that a mixture of air and water vapor of a given temperature is cooled by contact with the hill-tops, and under the influence of gravity and other causes flows down the slopes.

It is well known that soon after sunset *valleys and low places serve as catchment* basins for slow-moving air that is densest and coldest. The hilltops, terraces, and even mountain tops, if not too high, are in contact with air of higher temperature, which must be either an in-draft from warm surrounding strata, or the displaced air from below. How the circulation begins and how it is maintained are not clearly understood, and unfortunately we have no instruments sufficiently sensitive for our needs. The cooling of the lower levels, the warming of the upper levels, and the existence of an inversion are evidently not the result of a single cause. But one fact stands out strongly in all of the investigations thus far made; that is, that where the air is in motion there is less likelihood of frost than where the air is stagnant. This may be called the first law of frost formation.

One factor in establishing the circulation is the fact that slopes, especially those facing west or southwest, have been heated by insolation during the day, and therefore radiate more rapidly, since radiation is a function of the absolute temperature; but the energy thus radiated is not absorbed by any layer of vapor and dust particles, as generally is the case with the radiation from the lower levels. The valleys and low levels lose heat by radiation; but soon after sunset there is formed a thin blanket of condensed vapor, which interferes with free radiation and checks the rate of cooling. The air at the higher level is robbed of its vapor and dust nuclei, becoming more and more like a pure gas and permitting freer radiation. Mixed air and vapor is lighter than dry air per unit volume; and thus moist air would naturally tend to rise. The condensed vapor, however, must be regarded in a different light from the vapor before condensation. In condensing, and also, but to less degree, in congealing into frost flakes, heat is set free in the sense that molecular energy is decreased. This heat is not shown as a direct rise in temperature, but does serve to prevent fall in temperature, such as expansion due to rising would produce. Thus we have near the ground an increasing load of condensed vapor, or vapor near the condensing point, which either crystallizes as frost with further cooling or is carried away by convective currents.

We see, then, that there are various conflicting processes: gain and loss of heat by radiation (the upper slopes losing heat by radiation, and the lower air masses gaining heat); retardation or acceleration in rate of change of temperature by the change in state of the water vapor; direct gain or loss of heat by convection or the actual translation of cold and warm air masses, and finally some slight gain or loss by conductivity. As to wind, certain types of storm movement easily recognizable are followed by frosts. Gusty northwest winds dying out at sunset, with unclouded skies and low and decreasing humidity above 100 metres, but increasing in the lower levels, are significant local conditions preceding inversion and favoring frost. In lieu of the usual and unsatisfactory apparatus for recording humidity, Professor McAdie has devised an ingenious instrument which is a decided improvement over the usual form of hygrograph: it is known as a saturation deficit recorder, and gives a continuous record of the weight of the vapor in grams per unit volume.

Precedent to a description of the best methods of protection from injury by frost, he formulates as follows the second law of frost formation: "Frost is more likely to occur when the upper air is dry than when it is moist." It is also true that a dusty atmosphere is less favorable for frost than a dust-free atmosphere. Thus we may generalize and say that whatever favors clear, still, dry air, favors frost. The theory of successful frost fighting, then, is to interfere with or prevent these processes which, as we have seen, facilitate cooling close to the ground.

In what way can this best be done? The most natural way would be to conserve the earth's heat, which could be accomplished by covering plants with cloth, straw, newspaper, or, perhaps better still, modern weather-proof sheeting, or in still another way by a cover of dense smoke, generally called a smudge. A second method would be by means of direct application of heat; and this is accomplished in orange groves by means of improved orchard heaters. Large fires waste heat and are neither economical nor effective. A third method would be based upon some method of mixing the air strata and getting the benefit of the warmer higher levels. Fourthly, advantage might be taken of some agency, like water or water vapor, having a high specific heat. Finally, if the crop is of a certain character, such as the cranberry, it will be found advisable to use sand, and to drain and clean, here again making use of the specific heat of some intermediary. And, furthermore, any one of these methods may be combined with some other method.

Regarding the first method, that of covers, it may be said that the practice goes back to the early husbandmen; but only in the last few years has the true function of the cover been properly interpreted, and we are still far from obtaining maximum efficiency, nor is there yet a suitable, scientific cover available. Any medium that interferes with loss of heat through free radiation before and after sunset is a cover. The best type of cover is a cloud; and clouds, whether high or low, are good frost protectors. On cloudy nights there is little likelihood of frost; nor do inversions occur. We have mentioned above the fact that the earth radiates the heat it has received not in the same, but in longer wavelengths. These are easily trapped and held

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by the vapor of water. Furthermore, the rate of radiation is a function of the absolute temperature, and so the rapidity of loss depends somewhat upon the heat received. Therefore, the cover should be used as early in the day as possible, that is, just before sunset. Aside from the water cover or vapor cover there are cheap cloth screens, fibre screens, and also lath screens.

The second method, that of direct heating, has met with much success in the orange groves of California and elsewhere. Modern heating methods date from experiments begun in 1895. A number of basic patents granted to Professor McAdie in this connection are dedicated to the public. At the present time there are on the market some twenty forms of heaters, which have been described with more or less detail in farm journals and official publications. It is not necessary to refer to them further here. The fuel originally used was wood, straw, and coal, but these are now supplanted by crude oil or distillate. It has, too, been seriously proposed to use electric heaters, and also gas. Properly installed and handled, there is no difficulty in raising the temperature of even comparatively large tracts five degrees and maintaining a temperature above freezing.

The third method, that of utilizing the heat of higher levels by mixing, has not yet been commercially developed; while the methods of applying water, either in the spraying of trees or the running of ditches or the flooding of bogs, together with methods of sanding, cleaning, and draining, have all been proved helpful. Methods available and most effective in one section may not necessarily be effective in another section where the requirements of other crops may be quite different. Certain devices most effective in the groves of California may not answer in Florida or Louisiana, because of entirely different conditions of weather. Along the Gulf coast, where water is available, it may be advantageously used to hold back ripening and retard development until after the cold waves of middle and late February have passed; whereas on the west coast conditions are very different, water having a definite value and the critical periods coming in late December or early January.

In what precedes, stress has been laid chiefly upon the fall of temperature and the congelation of the water vapor. There is, however, another important matter connected with injury to plant tissue, and that is the rise in temperature after the frost. A too rapid defrosting may do considerable damage where no damage was originally done by the low temperature. It is in this connection that water may be used to great advantage. Water, water vapor, and ice, compared with other substances, have remarkably high specific heats. If the specific heat under constant pressure of water be taken as unity, that of ice is 0.49, of water vapor 0.45, and of air 0.24. Or, in a general way, we may say that water has four times the capacity for heat that air has. Therefore, it is apparent that water will serve excellently to prevent rapid change in temperature. This is important at sunrise and shortly after, when some portion of the chilled plant tissue may be exposed to a warming sufficient to raise the temperature of the exposed portion ten degrees in an hour.

The latent heat of fusion of ice is 79.6 calories, and the latent heat of vaporization of water is nearly 600 small calories or therms per gram. Therefore, in the process of changing from solid to liquid to vapor, as from ice to water to vapor, a large amount of heat is liberated. This does not mean, as is generally assumed, that the air will be warmed, but it does mean a retardation of change in temperature. And it is essential that the restoration of the tissues and juices to their normal state be accomplished gradually, neither too rapidly nor yet too slowly. There is probably an optimum temperature for thawing or defrosting frozen fruits and flowers.

Finally, the records of temperature as ordinarily obtained need careful interpretation. It may be that the freezing point of liquids under pressure in the plant cells or exposed to the air through the stomata is not the same as in the free air. It is unfortunate, too, that in most places data showing temperatures of soil, plant, and air are of doubtful character. A word of warning may be given against the too ready acceptance of records of the Weather Bureau made in cities and on the roofs of buildings. Conditions in gardens and fields vary greatly from these. It is further advisable to obtain a continuous record of the temperature of evaporation, such as is shown by the records herewith. The two temperature curves made simultaneously and easily read at any moment enable the gardener or orchardist to forecast the probable minimum temperature of the ensuing ten or twelve hours. But not always, and some study is necessary. A slight increase in cloudiness or a slight shift in the direction of the wind will prevent the fall in temperature which otherwise seemed probable. With a persistent inversion of temperature there is sometimes an increasing absolute humidity. In fact, the problem is many-sided, and we must consider the motion of the air vertically as well as horizontally. Air gains and loses heat chiefly by convection, and any gain or loss by conduction may be neglected. The plant gains heat by convection, radiation, and perhaps by conduction of an internal rather than surface character. The ground gains and loses heat chiefly by radiation. But the whole process is complicated, nor are the rates of change uniform. Frosts generally are preceded by a loss of heat from the lower strata of air, due to convection and a horizontal translation of the air. Then follows an equally rapid and great loss of heat by free radiation. There are minor changes, such as the setting free of heat in condensation and its utilization in evaporation, but these latent heats are of less importance than the actual transference of the air and vapor and the removal of the latter as an absorber and retainer of heat.

Frosts are recurrent phenomena reasonably certain to occur within given dates, and, as pointed out above, the cumulative losses are considerable. Methods of protection, to be serviceable, must be available for more than one occasion, for there is no profit in saving a crop on one night and losing it on the succeeding night. But the effort is worth while. Consider that the horticulturist regularly risks the labor of many months on the temperatures of a few hours. An efficient frost-fighting device is in a way the entering wedge for solving problems of control of climate. One may not take a crop indoors, it is true; but in the light of what has been already accomplished, there is no valid reason why at critical periods, which may be anticipated, the needed volume of surface air may not be sufficiently warmed to prevent the losses which have heretofore been considered inevitable. Professor McAdie is to be congratulated on successfully pointing out the practical methods of insurance against such losses which in the past have been excessive.

Drama

"HOBSON'S CHOICE."

A title that fits, a neatly constructed plot, and a cast remarkably well chosen, are the considerable assets of "Hobson's Choice," of which the author is Mr. Harold Brighouse. That the public can usually detect a good play is evidenced by the necessity of transferring the piece this week from the Princess to the larger Comedy Theatre. "Hobson's Choice," though cast in the mould of "Bunty," deals with a bit of the British provinces (Lancashire) in a manner sufficiently fresh to merit, in popular estimation, an existence quite its own. Just here it may be remarked that persons who prefer to keep their theatregoing distinct from their slumming will welcome this additional sign of a disposition by managers to substitute the life of the respectable lower middle class for the red-light district which held the stage of yesterday.

"Hobson's Choice," like "Quinneys'" and "Our Children," has the setting of a humble activity. In the present case, it is the bootshop of Henry Hobson, a tyrant among his three motherless daughters, resolved that they shall manage the business, while he pays frequent visits to a neighboring tavern, and shall marry, if at all, men of his choosing. Perhaps he might have had his way if the eldest girl had not possessed a will of her own. But Maggie, diminutive, as played by Molly Pearson, and always unruffled, overrules her father's bluff threats, leaving him only his namesake's choice, and even goes so far as to select for helpmeet Willie, the young apprentice of the head bootmaker, realizing that his deftness joined with her head for business will make a famous combination. The scene in which she woos the bashful boy, after releasing him from the toils of

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his landlady, who has engaged him to her daughter, is rich with merriment without being too extravagant. A first act so lavish of dramatic interest left one wondering whether enough material remained to fill out three more acts. But when, at the beginning of the second act, Maggie was revealed planning for her marriage and those of her sisters, who had been quietly encouraging suitors, and also to set up an independent shop for Willie, it was plain that the wrench on the self-centred father would furnish ample matter for a conclusion. Old Hobson is indeed a character worth dwelling on. Having the outlines of Grumpy, without the latter's subtlety, he might have stepped out of Dickens; and in the final act, broken by too much familiarity with the Moonrakers' Tavern, his business fast waning, proud and obstinate still, though yearning for the society of his daughter, he provides the opportunity for a gripping sketch. We are glad to say that the impersonation of Mr. A. G. Andrews could scarcely have been bettered by Mr. Cyril Maude himself.

Perhaps the most amusing scene in the play is that of Maggie's wedding supper, which is attended by her sisters and their fiancés. The latter, with Willie, well played by Whitford Kane, are, of course, notable mainly as types—but such very droll types! Miss Molly Pearson, as might be suspected from her success in "Bunty," is ideally suited to play Maggie. It may be that she shows just a trace more of self-consciousness than was evident in her former triumph, but, if so, it is not annoying. F.

"THE ETERNAL MAGDALENE."

Miss Julia Arthur has not been happy in the play (Forty-eighth Street Theatre) which signalizes her return to the stage. Loose reasoning, especially in regard to the particular subject indicated by the title, we are accustomed to in literature and on the stage and accept with a sigh of resignation; but here loose reasoning is illustrated by looser construction. Mr. Robert McLaughlin has essayed the always perilous "dream-play" with which to elaborate his thesis that justice should be tempered with mercy in our dealings with the class of people truly described as "unfortunate." We give Mr. McLaughlin credit for having originally in mind no more than this, although, carried away by enthusiasm for his subject, he has possibly said a great deal more than he intended. In fact, we leave the theatre at the close of three rather tiresome acts with the distinct impression that we have listened to an impassioned plea for prostitution as an ancient and honorable profession; and this impression is distinctly heightened by the fact that by far the most interesting character in the play, and by all odds the best piece of acting, is the Blanche Dumond, the very refined "Madam" of a brothel, of Miss Lucile Watson.

The plot may be briefly summarized: Elijah Bradshaw, a wealthy bigot, has taken the leading part, even to the extent of hiring an evangelist, in a movement for cleaning up the tenderloin of a Middle Western town. The day has come when the inhabitants of the district are to be driven forth. Where they are to go is the last thought that occurs to the unco' guid. Bradshaw, appealed to on their behalf, has rejected any less strenuous measure than wholesale expulsion as a compromise with Satan. While writing a statement for the local paper he falls asleep. In his dream he experiences a series of misfortunes dimly reminiscent of Job and the Vicar of Wakefield. His daughter, by a woman whom he had betrayed and deserted years before, appears to him and insists on living in his house; his son thieves from the bank and betrays a woman; his legitimate daughter is betrayed by a lover; his wife dies; his reforming friends disown him. Naturally he wakes up chastened and decides not to make his statement on the subject of prostitution quite so strong as he had intended. The illegitimate daughter, known in the play as The Woman, is supposed to represent a kind of embodiment of an idea, not unlike the character of The Stranger, in "The Passing of the Third Floor Back." Miss Arthur's rendering of the part failed to make convincing an unfortunate conception. In Emmett Corrigan a capable actor was wasted on the rôle of Elijah Bradshaw. "The Eternal Magdalene" contains the germs of some ideas that, differently and more capably expressed, might have been welded into an interesting play. The fact that it is for the most part a dreary and futile production is the fault, not of the actors, who did their best with unpromising material, but of the author. S. W.

"AROUND THE MAP."

Although this latest production at the New Amsterdam is not a musical comedy in the sense, demanded a quarter of a century ago, of having more than a thin thread of story, the extraordinary beauty of the costumes and of the scenery do, in themselves, make this a piece worth seeing. For the scenic effects credit is due to Mr. Joseph Urban, who in a similar capacity has recently scored a success at the Manhattan Opera House. To the extent of what meets the eye, including a well-trained chorus, "Around the Map" may be heartily commended. The book and lyrics, by C. M. S. McLellan, and the music, by Herman Finck, are fair, though there is no real "hit" in either. But the main thing is the spectacle, and to set this off there is the neat initial device of two Parisian costumers, male and female, who, insisting that dress makes the woman even more than the man, serve in effect as gods of the machine to ravish hearts by their creations. This, joined with a special condition requiring the entire company to tour the world, provides a chance for gay scenes in Paris, Berlin, Petrograd, Japan, San Francisco, and New York. In this production Else Alder, of the Johann Strauss Theatre, of Vienna, has been brought to this country. Her voice is adequate and her acting vigorous, perhaps a trifle too vigorous. The most engaging figure in the cast is Georgia O'Ramey in the part of the indifferent Lulu Cachou. F.

The half-dozen little one-act plays published under the title of "The Beau of Bath" (Holt; $1.20 net) may be commended to the consideration of our independent and experimental theatrical organizations. The author, Constance D'Arcy Mackay, presumably intended them for amateurs, for whom they are too good. For the regular stage they are somewhat deficient in technical execution and strength of dramatic fibre. Nevertheless, they are effective little sketches, written in facile, simple, and musical rhymed verse, which, without being in any way remarkable, is of good literary quality. They deal with real or imaginary incidents in the lives of conspicuous figures of the eighteenth century. The best of them are "The Beau of Bath" and "The Prince of Court Painters." In the first the faded Beau Nash, in neglected old age, entertains, in a dream, the ghost of a proud beauty whom he had loved in earlier days but never dared to woo. She tells him that she would have proved warmer if he had been bolder. It is a pretty fancy delicately told. In the second the famous painter, George Romney, broken and dying, finds his way, by chance, to the cottage of the wife whom he had abandoned in youth and is by her welcomed and tended as a returning prodigal. Here historical fact supplies the motive of a sympathetic and dramatic scene, excellent in its direct simplicity and genuine feeling. Kitty Clive and Horace Walpole appear in "Ashes of Roses," in which a pretty sentiment is expressed in clever lines. There may or may not be a vestige of truth in the fiction, but, in the light of known facts, it is not easy to think of the vivacious Kitty so faithful to an early rustic love and carrying, as a memento of it, in her halcyon London days, a withered rosebud in her bodice. In "Counsel Retained" Peg Woffington, escaping from a mob of worshippers, takes refuge in the poor quarters of the unknown Edmund Burke. She amuses herself by traducing her own reputation, and is so pleased with the zeal with which he, ignorant of her identity, defends it, that she retains him in a lawsuit in which she is plaintiff, and so gives him the needed start for his career. It is a lively and graceful trifle. "Gretna Green" deals pleasantly with the elopement of Maria Linley and Richard Brinsley Sheridan, while in "The Silver Lining" Fanny Burney is convicted of the authorship of "Evelina." Both these are very light in calibre, but like the others exhibit a dainty literary touch.

Music

AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN MUSIC.

English composers have benefited by the war in so far as their works are, for patriotic reasons, receiving more attention than ever before. American composers, for reasons less obvious, are coming into their own this season, not only at vocal and instrumental recitals, but particularly also at orchestral concerts, the conductors of which have specially announced their intention to put on their programmes a larger number of American compositions than heretofore. The Philharmonic began to redeem its promise by opening its season with MacDowell's "Launcelot and Elaine," which had not been heard before at its concerts. Walter Damrosch closed the second concert of the New York Symphony Orchestra with a new suite by John Alden Carpenter, entitled "Adventures in a Perambulator." It is programme (or descriptive) music of a primitive sort, but executed with considerable poetic and orchestral charm. The suite consists of six parts: En Voiture, The Policeman, The Hurdy Gurdy, The Lake, Dogs, Dreams. An elaborate description, which takes up two columns of the programme, tells in detail what

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the baby sees and hears on its daily ride with the nurse, and the orchestra attempts to translate its thoughts into music, step by step. In doing this, Mr. Carpenter has shown much ingenuity; every now and then the revolving wheels of the carriage are heard; there is a special motive which stands for the baby, who also has his "private signal," delivered loudly on a stopped trumpet when he is displeased; the hurdy-gurdy plays a stirring waltz, in which novel effects occur; the dogs have their unmistakable "yap, yap"; and so on. It is, as before said, programme music of a primitive sort, and there is no new melodic message in the score; but the orchestra is handled cleverly, there are choice rhythmic and realistic tit-bits, and the pleased audience repeatedly recalled the composer. He is the vice-president of a business concern in Chicago and, unlike most American business men, seems to find time to bestow on the fine arts.

At the same concert the German colorature soprano, Frieda Hempel, sang, with a voice that was delightfully pure and fresh, and with the true Viennese swing, an arrangement of Johann Strauss's "Blue Danube Waltz." It is not generally known that this waltz was originally written with chorus, and that it was a failure! The only other concerts of the week were by the Boston Symphony Orchestra. They were given, it is needless to say, before crowded and enthusiastic audiences. This orchestra, during the past summer, made a triumphal tour of the country, extending to San Francisco. Among its New York patrons there was some dissatisfaction last season because of Dr. Muck's queer programmes; but no one, surely, could have found any fault with those offered last week. The first of them included the fourth symphony of Brahms, Schumann's "Manfred" overture, Strauss's "Tod und Verklärung," and, best of all, Dvorák's splendid "Husitzka" overture; the second, Beethoven's seventh symphony, Ravel's "Ma Mère l'Oye," Loeffler's "La Mort de Tintagiles," and the most popular of Liszt's symphonic poems, "Les Préludes." In Boston, last season, Dr. Muck won his biggest ovation with Liszt's "Faust" symphony, and it is likely that this composer will have a prominent place on his programmes this year, both at home and on tour.

Among recent entertainments by single artists none was of greater interest to serious lovers of music than the first of the six historic recitals arranged by the great Russian pianist, Ossip Gabrilowitsch. It is the first thing of its kind since the days of Rubinstein, and the series is to be repeated in several other American cities. Beginning with the old English Byrde and Purcell, Mr. Gabrilowitsch took his hearers through the French and Italian gardens of Couperin, Rameau, Scarlatti, before he entered the realms of German and Austrian classical music as represented by Bach, Handel, Haydn, and Mozart. The climax of his recital was the "Chromatic Fantasy and Fugue" of Bach, a piece which not only foreshadows the modern instrumental recitative, half-way between melody and speech, but also the power and grandeur of the modern grand piano. In the days of Bach the organ alone rose to the heights of his fancy, but he had visions of the piano of the future, and in the piece named, as played by this pianist, they are realized in a way that would have thrilled its composer with delight. All of the other pieces of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries played on this occasion were more old-fashioned, yet Mr. Gabrilowitsch knew how to make them interesting as such.

One of the cleverest things this Russian pianist ever did was to win the hand of Mark Twain's daughter. As a woman she is as attractive and interesting as the best of her father's books, and she is, moreover, a singer of unusual charm. Clara Clemens Gabrilowitsch gave a recital last Saturday which made a deep impression on her audience. It cannot be said that her voice has been trained as it should be, yet with that voice, thanks to its noble quality and the soulful way she uses it, she wins the applause of hearers who would be left cold by the more highly polished voices of singers lacking her temperament, and what one might call her literary insight into the songs she sings. All the *lieder* on her programme were by Russian composers, the most enjoyable of them being four by Rubinstein (the entrancing melodist whom most singers so incomprehensibly neglect), and by her husband, Mr. Gabrilowitsch, who is one of the best song-writers of the day as well as a leading pianist. By playing his wife's accompaniments he provides her with a tower of strength to lean upon.

Another contralto—still the greatest of them all—was heard last week: Ernestine Schumann-Heink; she has a voice which stands the wear and tear of travel surprisingly well, and which speaks to the heart as perhaps no other voice does. Nellie Melba is another veteran whose voice and singing are as fresh and as enjoyable as they were twenty years ago. Another thing to be said for Mme. Melba is that on three continents she has within a year been converting her golden tones into gold coin for war victims, on a larger scale than that of any artist before the public.

The Boston Opera Company closed its brief season in this city with the proud record of having drawn much larger audiences the second week than the first, which speaks well for its merits, as well as for the discrimination of the local public. The performances were repetitions of the first week's operas, with the exception of "Tosca," in the title part of which Olive Fremstad appeared; but she was not in good voice and, dramatically, she never was entrancing in this rôle. The leading tenor of the Boston company, Mr. Zenatello, is well known to New Yorkers, having been a member of the Hammerstein Opera for several seasons. He appeared last week to special advantage as Don José in "Carmen" and as Otello, winning ovations in both operas. The Russian, Mr. Baklanoff, proved to be a good singer and a subtle actor, especially as Iago and as Manfredo in "The Love of Three Kings," which also brought back a tenor, Mr. Ferrari-Fontana, whom the Metropolitan audiences used to applaud. Maria Gay, who sang in this city formerly, both at the Manhattan and the Metropolitan, did not make so agreeable an impression as Carmen as formerly. Luisa Villani gave a sympathetic interpretation of Desdemona, and of Fiora in the "Three Kings." The orchestra, conductors, chorus, and scenery of the Boston company have been previously praised in this column; and it may be said in summing up that Max Rabinoff's combination of this company with the Pavlowa ballet is one of unusual excellence, which deserves good luck on its tour.

HENRY T. FINCK.

Finance

FINANCIAL INFLUENCES IN THIS COUNTRY.

Probably most people watching the stock market of the past week or two will have been most impressed by the fact that the reckoning had come for the extravagant "war-industrial" speculation. A good many other people will, however, have regarded with quite as much interest the relatively great strength of the railway and standard investment shares, at the moment when the industrials were collapsing. But a fact somewhat less immediately apparent, but very striking in itself, has been the extraordinary breadth and activity of the market itself.

The "war-stock liquidation" has occurred in a long series of days in which, at generally well-sustained values, a greater number of separate stocks were dealt in than ever before in the history of the New York Stock Exchange. Since the third week of September, there have been only three days in which less than a million shares were dealt in—something almost unprecedented in that market. Transactions even in bonds, during all that period, have been two or three times as great as they were in the corresponding days or weeks of 1913 and 1912. Last month's total business in stocks has never but once before been equalled in October; the same is true of the business in bonds.

What the course of prices in the immediate future is to be, does not seem entirely clear at the moment—not less so because of the fact that, while the shares of industrial companies are watching the war and ignoring all other influences, the railway shares are watching for trade revival in this country and, apparently, ignoring war news. But whether prices rise, or fall, or merely move uncertainly, the all but unprecedented volume of daily trading continues. At first consideration, the natural comment on this remarkable activity would be that it reflects the peculiar facts of the present situa-

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tion; the easy money and the overflowing bank resources; the new and unfamiliar elements in our economic position, at home and in relation to the outside world.

These, it will generally be admitted, are conditions making for speculation in the larger sense. There are, however, two or three other much more general influences at work which should go to explain the peculiar characteristics of this movement. They are not the sort of influences to which Wall Street attaches the most importance. Yet, as often happens, the influences which professional speculators overlook may be the largest factors in an unusual economic situation.

The first of these possible influences is the fact that what we are seeing now is in the nature of a pent-up investment and speculative activity, breaking bounds to-day because of a long and forcible restraint. During five months after July, 1914, accruing capital of our investors and speculators was unable to reach the market. The Stock Exchange was closed; none of the customary large offerings of new securities came in sight to absorb our cash resources. It is not wholly strange that, after the markets had reopened on the ending of this long embargo, the accumulated force of our capital reserves—increased by our relations with the outside world—should have brought about, by successive stages, the situation which exists.

The second economic influence bears in the same direction; it may have to do only with the "Wall Street boom" which has occurred already, or with what is to happen later. The United States had reached in 1912 a position perfectly familiar in the "cycle of prosperity." Our process of wholesome recuperation from the breakdown of 1907 had already lasted nearly or quite as long as the similar interval between the panic of 1873 and the beginning of "boom times" in 1879, or between the panic of 1893 and the prolonged trade revival dating from 1897.

What stopped so very abruptly the revival which had actually begun in 1912, every one knows. It was the Balkan war which broke out in October of that year, and the accompanying shadow, never thereafter removed from the financial markets, of the vastly greater coming conflict. Now, however, by a combination of circumstances which could certainly not have been foreseen, our own markets seem to have been released from this long apprehension. We are facing actual facts, and for the time they are playing the American market's hand.

The third possible influence is more obscure; perhaps it will be called fanciful. Yet, on the broadest economic considerations, and in view of the fact that excited speculation and a "boom"—more or less unwholesome as circumstances dictated—has been an invariable incident of a great war with its prodigious government expenditure, it may not be unreasonable to ask what result would logically follow, if all great stock markets in the world but one were to be tied down arbitrarily, so that they could make no such response.

If these three influences were alone in operation, they would largely explain the phenomena of the day, though they would also leave opportunity for the familiar doubt regarding the longer outlook. What the next few months or the next few years will show is the extent to which the unquestionably sound sub-stratum for a forward movement in America will offset the temporary and precarious character of the impulse to expansion arising directly from the war. Regarded from another point of view, they will possibly show how much or how little of the present strong economic position in the United States is (as popularly imagined) a direct and exclusive consequence of the war itself, and how much a result of conditions in this country, which would sooner or later have asserted themselves, even without a European war.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Castle, A. and E. The Hope of the House. Appleton. $1.35 net.
Couperus, L. The Later Life. Dodd, Mead. 1.35 net.
Conwell, R. H. Acres of Diamonds. Harper. $1 net.
Osborne, W. H. The Boomerang. McBride. $1.35 net.
Raine, W. M. Steve Yeager. Houghton Mifflin. $1.35 net.
Rice, J. L. Rocher Fendu. Boston: Badger. $1.35 net.
Sabatini, R. The Banner of the Bull. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Standerson, G. The Hundredth Wave. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.35 net.
Streuvels, S. The Path of Life. Dodd, Mead. $1.50 net.
Tomlinson, E. T. Prisoners of War. Houghton Mifflin. $1.35 net.
White, S. E. The Gray Dawn. Doubleday, Page. $1.35 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Brandt, J. L. Anglo-Saxon Supremacy. Boston: Badger. $1.25 net.
Brown, C. R. The Northern Confederacy. Princeton University Press.
Fraser, Mrs. H. Storied Italy. Dodd, Mead. $3.50 net.
Green, H. The Log of a Noncombatant. Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
Hale, L. C. We Discover New England. Dodd, Mead. $2 net.
Hearn, L. Interpretations of Literature. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead. $6 net.
Leach, A. F. Some Results of Research in the History of Education in England. Oxford University Press. 2s. 6d. net.
Lee, Sir S. Shakespeare and the Italian Renaissance. Oxford University Press. 1s. net.
McClung, N. L. In Times Like These. Appleton. $1 net.
Munson, A. Kipling's India. Doubleday, Page. $1.50 net.
Okey, T. Speech of His Excellency Signor Antonio Salandra. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Patterson, S. W. The Spirit of the American Revolution. Badger. $1.50 net.
Phelps, E. H. Debater's Manual. H. W. Wilson Co. $1 net.
Preston, T. J. The Bronze Doors. Princeton University Press.
Rocklin, Dr. F. Wishfulfillment and Symbolism in Fairy Tales. New York: The Nervous and Mental Disease Pub. Co.
Sweetser, K. D. Ten Great Adventures. Harper. $1.50 net.
The New Hudson Shakespeare Series: The Merchant of Venice. A Midsummer Night's Dream. The Comedy of the Tempest. Twelfth Night. Julius Cæsar. As You Like It. The Tragedy of Hamlet. The Tragedy of King Lear. The Tragedy of Macbeth. Introduction and notes by H. N. Hudson. Boston: Ginn.
The Sesquicentennial of Brown University, 1764-1914. By the University.
The Yoga System of Patañjali. Harvard Oriental Series. Edited by C. R. Lanman. Volume 17. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
Thornton, L. S. Conduct and the Supernatural. Longmans, Green. $2.25 net.
Walsh, W. S. Heroes and Heroines of Fiction. Phila.: Lippincott.
Witmer, L. The Nearing Case. Huebsch. 50 cents.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Coffin, H. S. Some Christian Convictions. Yale University Press. $1 net.
Cole, E. E. The Good Samaritan. Boston: Badger. $1 net.
Kisjinami, T. The Development of Philosophy in Japan. Princeton University Press.
Lambert, W. A. Religious Education. Boston: Badger. 75 cents.
Rust, C. H. Personal Religion. Boston: Badger. $1.25 net.
Vincent, E. C. The Madonna in Legend and History. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co.
Walter, J. E. Subject and Object. West Newton, Pennsylvania: Johnston & Penny.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Fritts, F. The Concept of Equality in Its Relation to a Principle of Political Obligation. Princeton University Press.
Gide, C. and Rist, A. A History of Economic Doctrines. Heath.
Post, L. F. The Taxation of Land Values. Bobbs-Merrill. $1 net.
Sharfman, I. L. Railway Regulation. Chicago: La Salle Extension University. $2.
The Hague Conventions and Declarations of 1899-1907. Edited by J. B. Scott. Oxford University Press. $1 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Barker, E. War Letters from the Living Dead Man. Mitchell Kennerley. $1.25 net.
Caldwell, R. G. The Lopez Expeditions to Cuba. Princeton University Press. $1.25 net.
Ellery, E. Brissot de Warville: A Study in the History of the French Revolution. The Vassar Semi-Centennial Series. Houghton Mifflin. $1.75 net.
Friedlander, I. The Jews of Russia and Poland. Putnam. $1.25 net.
Gayda, V. Modern Austria. Dodd, Mead. $3 net.
Harrer, G. A. Studies in the History of the Roman Province of Syria. Princeton University Press.
Kipling, R. France at War. Doubleday, Page. 50 cents.
Le Mesurier, E. A. Genoa. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
McCabe, J. The Kaiser: His Personality and Career. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 5s. net.
MacDonald, J. A. Democracy and the Nations. Doran. $1.35 net.
Maitland, F. W., and Montague, F. C. A Sketch of English Legal History. Putnam. $1.50 net.
Palmer, F. My Year of the Great War. Dodd, Mead. $1.50 net.
Pleasures and Palaces: The Memoirs of Princess Lazarovich-Hrebelianovich. Century. $3 net.
Rawlinson, H. G. Shivâjî the Marâthâ: His Life and Times. Oxford University Press.
Sanborn, K. Memories and Anecdotes. Putnam. $1.75 net.
Sherrill, C. H. French Memories of 18th Century America. Scribner. $2 net.

TRAVEL.

Anderson, I. The Spell of Belgium. Boston: Page Co. $2.50 net.
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